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ABSTRACT

This paper is part of a larger project dealing with National Longitudinal Surveys (NLS) of labor market experience. This volume is based on the sample of older women (aged 30-44 at the beginning of the study). It consists of a series of research papers on topics that are conceived to be important in understanding the labor market experience and status of women in their thirties and forties. The paper deals with such issues as: current labor force status of various categories of women and its relationship to the extent of their lifetime participation; an analysis of the sample's lifetime work histories by focusing on career orientation and occupational status; the determinants of average hourly earnings of wage-earning and salaried women; questions of child care arrangements and the needs of women with preschool children; and different aspects of the mobility of women. (NG)

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Dual Careers:

A longitudinal analysis of the labor market experience of women

Herbert S. Parnes
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Volume four

December 1975

Center for Human Resource Research
College of Administrative Science
The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio

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FOREWORD

For slightly more than a decade the Center for Human Resource Research of The Ohio State University and the U.S. Bureau of the Census, under separate contracts with the Employment and Training Administration of the U.S. Department of Labor, have been engaged in the National Longitudinal Surveys (NLS) of labor market experience. Four subsets of the United States civilian population are being studied: women who at the inception of the study were 30 to 44 years of age; men 45 to 59 years of age; and young men and young women between the ages of 14 and 24. These groups were chosen because each is confronted with special labor market problems that are challenging to policy makers: for the two groups of youth, high unemployment rates; for the older cohort of women, problems associated with re-entry into the labor force after children are in school or grown; and for the men, problems associated with skill obsolescence and age discrimination that may make re-employment difficult if jobs are lost.

For each of these four population groups, a national probability sample of the noninstitutional population was drawn by the Census Bureau in 1966, and interviews have been conducted periodically by Census enumerators utilizing schedules prepared by the Center for Human Resource Research. Originally planned to cover a five-year period, the surveys have been so successful and attrition so small that they have been continued beyond the originally planned expiration dates. As of the end of 1974, the older cohort of men had been interviewed in 1966, 1967, 1968 (mail), 1969, 1971, and 1973 (telephone); the older cohort of women in 1967, 1968 (mail), 1969, 1971, 1972, and 1974 (telephone); the young men annually between 1966 and 1971 and by telephone in 1973; and the young women annually between 1968 and 1973.

A substantial body of literature has already appeared based upon the NLS data. Fifteen volumes of comprehensive reports have been published on surveys conducted through 1970 (1971 in the case of the middle-aged men). These have appeared under the titles of The Pre-Retirement Years (middle-aged men: 4 volumes); Career Thresholds (young men: 5 volumes); Dual Careers (women: 3 volumes); and Years for Decision (young women: 3 volumes). In addition, about 100 reports on specific topics have been prepared by staff members of the Center for Human Resource Research and other researchers throughout the country who have acquired NLS public-use tapes.

The present volume is based upon the surveys of the older cohort of women through 1972. It differs from the previous volumes in the Dual Careers series in two major respects. First, it makes no attempt at a comprehensive coverage of all aspects of the data, but rather consists of a series of research papers on topics that are conceived to be important in understanding the labor market experience and status of women in their

thirties and forties. Second, rather than relying exclusively on tabular analysis as have the previous volumes, all of the papers except the introductory one utilize multivariate statistical techniques.

Without attempting to escape their ultimate responsibility for whatever limitations their papers may have, the authors wish to acknowledge their debt to a large number of persons without whose contributions neither the overall study nor the present volume would have been possible. Although personally unknown to us, the several thousand members of the sample who have generously agreed to repeated interviews over the years must be mentioned first, for they have provided the raw materials for our effort.

Officials of the Employment and Training Administration have been continuously helpful to us in making suggestions for the design of the National Longitudinal Surveys and in carefully reviewing preliminary drafts of our reports. We wish to acknowledge especially the continuous support and encouragement of Howard Rosen, Director of the Office of Research and Development, and the valuable advise provided by Jacob Schiffman, Rose Weiner, and Ellen Sehgal, who have at various times over the years served as monitors of the project. Ms. Sehgal's comments on an earlier draft of the present volume were especially helpful, as were those of a number of other persons in the Department of Labor and other agencies who read portions of the manuscript at her request, including Emily Andrews, Robert Fairweather, Elizabeth Waldman, and Alice Yohalem.

The research staff of the Center for Human Resource Research has enjoyed the continuous expert and friendly collaboration of personnel of the Bureau of the Census, who have been responsible for developing the samples, conducting all of the interviews, coding and editing the data, and preparing the initial versions of the computer tapes. The names of those who have been involved in these activities over the years are too numerous to be mentioned individually, but we should like to acknowledge especially our debt to Earle Gerson, Chief of the Demographic Surveys Division and to his predecessors Daniel Levine and Robert Pearl; to Robert Mangold, Chief of the Longitudinal Surveys Branch; to Marie Argana, his immediate predecessor; and to their colleagues Dorothy Koger and Pat Healy. These are the individuals in the Census Bureau with whom we have had immediate contact in the recent past. In addition, we wish to express our appreciation to Kenneth Frail of the Field Division for directing the data collection; to David Lipscomb and Eleanor Brown and their staff of the Systems Division for editing and coding the interview schedules; and to Thomas Meerholz and Kenneth Kaplan for the preparation of the computer tapes.

The process of revising the computer tapes received from the Census Bureau and producing all of the tables and regressions incorporated in this volume was the responsibility of the Data Processing Unit of the Center for Human Resource Research under the able direction of Robert Shondel and his predecessor John Grasso. To Keith Stober, Production

Supervisor of the Unit, Gary Schoch, his predecessor, and their staff we express our thanks for serving so skillfully as intermediaries between us and the computer.

The authors profited from comments on earlier drafts of their work by their co-authors as well as by other members of the research staff of the Center, particularly John Grasso, Andrew Kohen, and Frank Mott. Finally, we are grateful to Ellen Mumma for her assistance in editing the volume, to Malcolm Rich for his editorial assistance and for the preparation of the Index, to Marc Parnes for the preparation of the charts that appear in Chapter I, and to Dortha Gilbert for the speed, accuracy, and good humor with which she typed the final version of the text and tables.

Herbert S. Parnes
Project Director
December 1975

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

Carol L. Jusenius and Herbert S. Parnes*

During the past several decades, the proportion of married women working or seeking work outside the home has more than doubled--from 20 percent in 1947 to 43 percent in 1974. Accompanying this trend has been a dramatic change in the attitudes of American society concerning "appropriate" roles for women. At the end of World War II, the presence of women in the labor force was a source of social controversy; a majority of adult Americans did not approve of labor market activity by married women with children.[1] Today the employment of women outside the home tends to be more widely accepted, and the sharpest debates over women's status center on other issues: the need for child care facilities by working mothers; the extent of job satisfaction among women; the occupational and earnings distributions of women; and the effect of family composition on women's career development.

Topics such as these are the focus of the present volume--analyzed by means of a unique set of longitudinal data that record the work histories of a national sample of women in their thirties and forties from the time their formal schooling ended, and in considerable detail for the five-year period from 1967 to 1972. In addition to work-history information, the data include a rich variety of detail on the women's family backgrounds, their education and training, their health condition, their marital and child-bearing histories, a number of their work-related attitudes, and the current economic circumstances of their families. Thus, social and psychological as well as economic determinants and effects of labor market experience can be explored.

I PLAN OF THE VOLUME

The papers in this volume do not purport to analyze every important facet of women's labor market experience. Even less do they promise to exploit all of the data from the surveys on which they are based. Rather, each paper focuses on an aspect of women's labor market behavior or experience that is of particular interest to its author(s) and that has a significant bearing on the welfare of women in this age category.

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*We are indebted to Randall H. King for his assistance in preparing the materials for the empirical portion of this chapter.

[1] Erskine (1971), p. 283.

Although all of the authors are members of the same research staff, neither in planning the volume nor in its execution has there been an attempt to force diverse interests into a common mold or to induce individual researchers to accept uncongenial conceptual frameworks or methods of analysis in order to serve some a priori sense of theoretical or methodological integrity. Hopefully, whatever may have been lost in the logic of organizational structure and in internal consistency has been compensated by the eclecticism that has resulted.

Chapter II utilizes both the abbreviated lifetime work histories of the women and the more detailed information relating to the period between 1967 and 1971 to analyze longitudinal patterns of female labor force participation. More specifically, current labor force status of various categories of women is related to the extent of their lifetime participation. Also, on the basis of comparisons of labor market status at three points in time--1967, 1969, and 1971--the relationship between entry and exit rates and changes in cross-sectional labor for participation rates is explored. Chapter III continues the analysis of the women's lifetime work histories by focusing on their career orientation and occupational status. The first portion of this chapter attempts to identify factors associated with a career orientation, defined as having been employed in the same or related occupations at least three-fourths of the time since leaving school. In the second portion multiple regression analysis is used to ascertain the determinants of educational attainment as of 1967 and of occupational status at several points in the lives of the respondents.

The remaining empirical chapters are based on the work experiences of the women during the five-year period covered by the surveys. Chapter IV analyzes the determinants of the average hourly earnings of women employed as wage and salary workers. Particular attention is focused on the relation between the skill level of a woman's job and the extent to which her wages are influenced by (1) human capital investments and (2) whether she is in a traditionally female occupation. Chapter V deals with two questions relating to the child care arrangements and needs of women with preschool children. The analysis begins with an assessment of the factors associated with the use of nonfamily means of child care. Then, among women not currently employed, it investigates the factors associated with the willingness to seek work if free day care centers were to be provided.

Chapters VI and VII relate to different aspects of the mobility of women. Geographic movement is the focus of the former. Two issues are investigated: the effect of a wife's employment on the probability of family migration; and the effect of migration on family earnings and, more particularly, the earnings of the wife. Chapter VII deals with interfirm movement and identifies the factors associated with a propensity to change employers as well as with the likelihood of actual voluntary job change between 1969 and 1971. This chapter also seeks to ascertain whether voluntary job changes result in improvements in earnings, job satisfaction, and employment stability. The final chapter draws together the principal findings of the volume and discusses their implications.

The remainder of this introductory chapter is divided into three sections. First, the nature of the data base is described. Next, there is a discussion of some of the issues involved in analyzing and interpreting the data. The final section presents an overview of changes that have occurred in the circumstances and attitudes of the women over the five-year period covered by the surveys.

II THE LONGITUDINAL DATA BASE

The Sample

The studies in this volume are based on data from the National Longitudinal Surveys.[2] The members of the sample who provided the information were selected to be representative of the almost 18 million women in the U.S. civilian noninstitutionalized population who in 1967 were between the ages of 30 and 44. The sample was drawn from 235 Primary Sampling Units (PSU's) by procedures analogous to those used in the Current Population Survey (CPS).[3] However, in order to provide sufficient numbers of observations for reliable racial comparisons, the sampling ratio for black women was between three and four times as high as that for white. Thus, the sample of 5,083 women originally interviewed in 1966 included 3,606 whites, 1,390 blacks, and 87 women of other races. The last-mentioned group has been eliminated for all of the analysis in this volume.

In addition to the difference in sampling weights between blacks and whites, there is also some variation within each color group. In part, this reflects a noninterview adjustment in weights that was made in the initial survey to account for members of the original sample who were not interviewed. It also reflects further adjustments in the weights to make the sample conform to the known distribution in 1967 of the United States' civilian population by residence, age, color, and sex. Although the tables in the report show numbers of sample cases rather than population estimates, all calculations (percentage distributions, means, regressions) are based upon weighted observations.[4]

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[2] These surveys have been designed by The Ohio State University Center for Human Resource Research under a contract with the Manpower Administration of the U.S. Department of Labor. The sample design, field work, and the initial stages of data processing are the responsibility of the U.S. Bureau of the Census under a separate contract with the Manpower Administration. In addition to the sample of women on which the data of this volume are based, the National Longitudinal Surveys include three other age-sex cohorts: men between the ages of 45 and 59 when they were first interviewed, young men between the ages of 14 and 24, and young women in the same age category. For a complete description of the surveys see Center for Human Resource Research (1975).

[3] For a detailed description of the sampling, interviewing, and estimating procedures, see Appendix C.

It is important to note that although the data collected in the 1967 survey are representative of the population of this age cohort of women in that year, the same is not true for the information collected in any subsequent year, for there has been no attempt to adjust the sampling weights to take account of attrition. Since the studies in this volume are for the most part restricted to respondents who were reinterviewed in 1972, it must be kept in mind that the sample on which the data are based is not necessarily representative of the civilian population of women 35 to 49 years of age in that year. Between the initial survey in 1967 and the 1972 survey, the sample shrank from 5,083 individuals to 4,471, an attrition rate of 12 percent. This shrinkage in the sample was not randomly distributed. For example, as is indicated by the data in Appendix Table 1A-1,[5] the 1972 sample tends to underrepresent childless women relative to married women with children living at home. There are also variations in attrition rates by region of residence. In most cases, however, differences in response rates among various categories of respondents are not substantial and are unlikely to have seriously biased any of the results that are reported in the studies.

The Surveys

Subsequent to the initial interview in 1967, respondents were reinterviewed in 1969, 1971, and 1972; an abbreviated mailed survey was conducted in 1968.[6] Each of the surveys was conducted by approximately 300 to 400 interviewers of the Field Division of the Bureau of the Census, utilizing schedules prepared by the Center for Human Resource Research.[7] Surveys generally extended over a two- to three-month period;[8] thus although the term "survey week" is used throughout the report to refer to the reference week (preceding the date of the interview), it should be borne in mind in interpreting the data that this is not the same week for all respondents.

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[4] The sole exception is Appendix Table 1A-1, showing the noninterview rates in the 1972 survey.

[5] Tables cited in this chapter are all found in Appendix A.

[6] Although the National Longitudinal Surveys were originally intended to cover a five-year period, a decision was reached in 1973 to extend the surveys for an additional five years so long as the problem of attrition did not become unduly severe. The additional surveys were to be conducted biennially by telephone, ending with a face-to-face interview at the end of the ten-year period. The first telephone survey of the women was conducted in 1974. Of those eligible, 96 percent were interviewed.

[7] For the 1967 and 1972 interview schedules, see Appendix D.

[8] To balance the work load of the Census Bureau, the month in which interviewing began was changed during the course of the study. Prior to 1969 the interviewing process began in May; in 1969 and thereafter they began in April.

Nature of the Data

Stated succinctly, the data collected during the course of the National Longitudinal Surveys include an abbreviated lifetime work history of each respondent up to the time of the first survey, a detailed work history during the period covered by the surveys, and information about a variety of social, psychological, and economic characteristics of the respondents that are hypothesized to influence labor market behavior. No particular purpose would be served by attempting to catalog at this point the types of information that have been collected, but Appendix B consists of a glossary defining all of the variables used in this volume and describing how they are measured.

While detailed description is unnecessary, the analytical potential inherent in the longitudinal character of the data deserves emphasis. The fact that the data have been collected at several points in time over a five-year period makes it possible to examine the extent and character of change in important aspects of the labor market status of the women, and this in itself is a substantial contribution because such data are relatively uncommon. But much more important is the ability to relate an individual's characteristics at one point in time to her characteristics or status at a subsequent point and to examine changes in one set of characteristics in the light of changes in another set. This allows analysis of developmental processes and the exploration of directions of causation that can be accomplished in no other way.

Perhaps the clearest examples of the unique contributions that longitudinal analysis can make are provided by studies of relationships between attitudinal measures and actual behavior. For example, in the study of interfirm mobility in Chapter VII a respondent's satisfaction with her current job as measured in 1969 is related to the likelihood of her having changed employers between 1969 and 1971. The only way such an investigation could have been carried out on the basis of a single survey would have been by means of a retrospective measure of attitudes--clearly indefensible because of the possibility that a respondent might rationalize her 1969 attitude in the light of her actual subsequent behavior.

However, the benefits of longitudinal analysis are by no means confined to cases in which attitudinal variables are being examined. For example, the analysis in Chapter II rests heavily on an ability to compare a woman's labor force status at several points in time. Similarly, the analyses of geographic and interfirm mobility in Chapters VI and VII, respectively, take advantage of an ability to relate changes in job status and in residence to changes in earnings. Finally, in the analysis of vertical occupational mobility in Chapter III the longitudinal research design permits one to examine the impact of various types of experience during the five years covered by the study on the likelihood of movement up or down the occupational hierarchy.

III THE LIFE-CYCLE DECISION PROCESS

Most of the analysis in this volume is based on a very short period in the total life span of the women under consideration--the five years from 1967 to 1972. Many of the characteristics of the women that affected their labor market activity during this period were the product of decisions that had been made earlier--decisions, for example, relating to education, marriage, and fertility. By the same token, decisions and experiences during the five-year period under investigation will doubtless condition subsequent behavior. All of these decisions and experiences, moreover, have been influenced by the changing social milieu in which the women lived. To put all of this in perspective, it is desirable to say a few words about the personal and environmental factors that have operated to affect the working lives of the cohort of women with which this study is concerned.

Factors Affecting Life-Cycle Decisions

At any given stage of development, some characteristics of individuals may be treated as exogenous in explaining behavior. For example, educational attainment or marital status are largely "given" in analyzing the current labor force participation of a 40-year-old woman. In contrast over the life-cycle, all decisions and actions are endogenous. Educational attainment, marital status, number of children, and career choice are not parameters to be taken as given; they are variables to be explained, reflecting the outcome of earlier decisions and earlier circumstances. Moreover, decisions and plans at one point in time are subject to modification and reformulation. The birth of a first child, for example, may affect a woman's decision to bear additional children, as well as her decisions with respect to labor market activity. Thus, even if a woman develops long range plans during her teen-age years, such plans are by no means immutable. They may very well be revised several times over the woman's life span either in response to events and circumstances outside her control or as the result of changes in her attitudes and desires brought on by the process of maturation and aging.

The ways in which the aging process--with its typical cycle of entry into the labor force after leaving school, marriage, children, and re-entry into the labor force--may affect a woman's plans is fairly obvious.[9] Her age at marriage may influence the number of children she wishes to bear. Her age at the birth of her first child may affect her decision to have more children or to work outside the home. The birth or aging of her child(ren) may cause her to reassess her role within the family and thus to alter her plans for labor market activity.

It is also clear that events outside a woman's control which affect other family members may force a woman to reappraise her situation at any moment in time.[10] For example, at any stage of the life cycle, the sudden unemployment or incapacitation of a woman's husband may mandate her (re)entrance into the labor force, contrary to her previous plans. Equally important in causing reformulation of plans are changes in preferences that may occur as unexpected consequences of earlier decisions.[11] In other words, there are feedback mechanisms that may cause modifications in particular choices as their outcomes are experienced. For instance, a wife who enters the labor force only in order to reduce a debt incurred by the family may enjoy her work and as a consequence revise her original plans and continue her employment even after the financial obligation has been met.

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[9] See, for example, Lopata (1972).

Finally, alterations in personal attitudes and preferences, and thus in plans, may result from changes in the broader social milieu. For example, women's plans regarding labor force participation and/or fertility may be modified as the result of social pressures to enter the labor force in order to contribute to a war effort, to leave the labor force in order to enhance employment opportunities for men, or to bear a greater (or lesser) number of children in the national interest. This factor is particularly important in understanding the work histories of the cohort of women under consideration in this volume. During their lives there have been dramatic changes in social attitudes toward women's role in the family and in the labor force. While still in their childbearing years, for example, most of the cohort have witnessed a shift in attitude toward large families, as concern for the population explosion made zero population growth a national issue. All have experienced the recent impact of the Women's Liberation Movement, with its implications for the status of women both in the home and in the labor market. These changes in social climate that the women have lived through necessitate an historical perspective in analyzing their labor market histories.

A Historical Backdrop

The four time lines in Chart 1.1 are designed to provide such a perspective. The top line indicates some major relevant events in American history over the 50-year period preceding the initial survey of our respondents. The remaining three show the age range of members of the cohort at the times of these events by focusing on the oldest (44), an intermediate age (37), and the youngest (age 30).

It is clear that the personal histories of the oldest group of women covered by this study were strongly linked to the economic and political events of the thirties and forties. They entered high school in the middle

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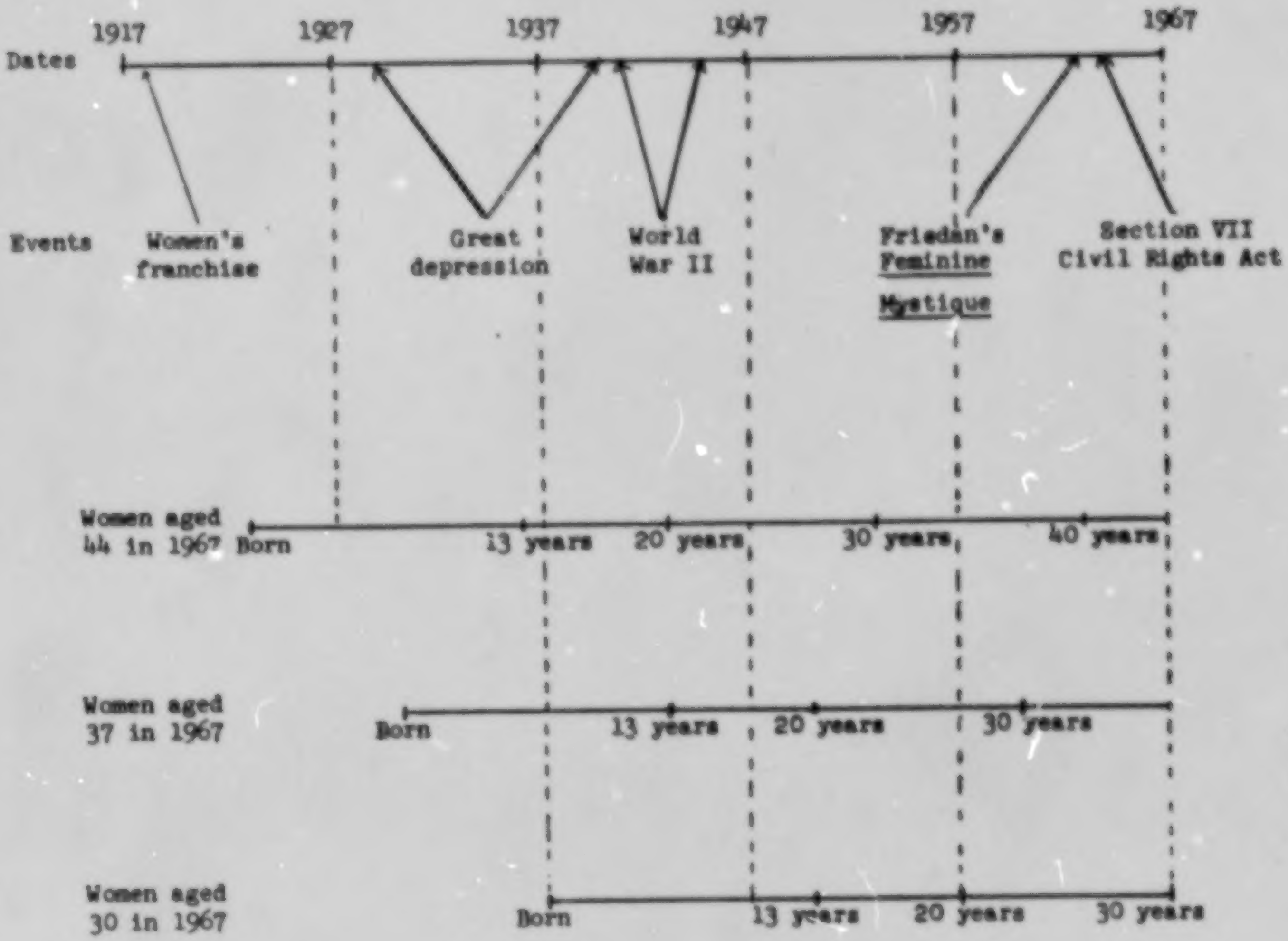
[10] See Ehrlich (1975); Mincer (1962); and Cain (1966).

[11] See Mezerick (1945) and Chafe (1972) for a discussion of women's attitudes toward employment after World War II.

Chart 1.1 Ages of Three Cohorts of Women at Dates of Selected Events



of the Depression; they graduated as the United States entered World War II; and they helped produce the post-war "baby boom." The wide swings that occurred over this period in social attitudes toward the appropriate roles of women were a critical part of their lives. During their high school years, public opinion polls indicated that Americans strongly disapproved of married women working outside the home.[12] The low labor force participation rates of the thirties reflect this attitude: among women 14 years of age or older, 24 percent were in the labor force in 1930 and only 25 percent in 1940.[13] However, as women in this age group were leaving high school, the onset of World War II produced a drastic change in opinion on this issue as the needs of war industries mandated the entrance of women into the labor force.[14] Thus, although they had grown up at a time when society generally disapproved of married women working outside the home, by the time they were of marriageable age, social pressures were encouraging them to enter the labor force. Between 1940 and 1944 the labor force participation rate of married women (husband present) increased from 15 percent to 22 percent.[15]

However, this change appears to have been a reflection more of the special circumstances of a war-time economy than of a change in social norms. The conclusion of the war saw the restoration of the belief that women's primary role was in the home. In part, this was merely a continuation of the view held during the war, i.e., that the employment of women was a temporary phenomenon. However, the attitude was reinforced by a general concern that unemployment would again reach the level of the 1930's with the return of the veterans.[16]

Yet many women who had responded to the demands of the war by entering the labor force did not wish to leave their jobs, and the post-war labor force participation rates of women reflect this feeling.[17] While the participation rates in the late forties were below those of the war years, they nevertheless remained above the pre-war figures. In 1947, for example, the participation rate of married women (husband present) was 20 percent as compared with 22 percent in 1944 and 15 percent in 1940.[18] In 1950 labor force participation rates for married women aged 45 to 54 and 55 to 64 (the groups most likely to have older children) were twice their 1940 level.[19]

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[12] Erskine (1971).

[13] Oppenheimer (1970), Table 1.1, p. 3. These figures are for black and white women combined. It should be noted, however, that the trends that are described in this and the several following paragraphs were quite different as between white and black women. In 1930 the proportion of women aged 14 and over who were gainfully employed was almost twice as high for blacks as for whites (42.5 versus 22.3 percent). In contrast to the experience of white women, participation rates of black women declined between 1930 and 1950. U.S. Department of Commerce (1943), Table 7, and (1960), Table 83.

[14] Whereas in 1936 only 15 percent of the population believed that it was acceptable for married women to work outside the home, by 1942, 60 percent of the American public favored the employment of women in war industries. Erskine (1971), 1936 Roper Poll on p. 282 and 1942 NORC Poll on p. 284.

[15] U.S. Department of Commerce (1974), Table 550, p. 340.

[16] Chafe (1972). See especially Chapter 8. Also see Mezerick (1945).

It is unclear whether this growth in the employment of women in combination with prosperous economic conditions influenced social attitudes, or whether the attitudes in combination with the prosperity caused the increase in women's labor market participation. Whatever the direction of causation, opinion polls indicated that a higher proportion of Americans in the late 1940's approved of married women working (if their children were grown) than in the pre-war period.[20] Nevertheless, the woman as full-time wife and mother remained the social norm, as well as the popularized ideal.

During the period immediately following the war, women in the intermediate age group (illustrated by the time line for those who were 37 years old in 1967) were graduating from high school. Their subsequent work histories, while undoubtedly influenced by their awareness as children of women's employment in war industries, were also likely to have been affected by the social conditions of the latter half of the 1940's. These women were making decisions regarding college, career, marriage, and children at a time when, as noted above, society was stressing the primacy of the role of "wife-mother" and accepting employment of women only if it did not interfere with the raising of children.

This attitude continued through the 1950's. The youngest group of women covered by this study (illustrated by the timeline for those who were 30 years old in 1967), were thus graduating from high school and becoming adults during a period in which society continued to emphasize women's position in the home. Nevertheless, increasing numbers of married women were seeking employment. Between 1950 and 1960 the labor force participation rate of married women (husband present) increased from 24 to 31 percent.[21] In other words, as these young women were formulating their marriage and career plans they were witnessing increasing labor market activity by older women,[22] and at the same time were reading women's magazines which stressed the importance of the roles women played in the home:

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[17] Mezerick (1945), pp. 81-82.

[18] U.S. Department of Commerce (1974), p. 340.

[19] Oppenheimer (1970), Table 1.4, p. 11.

[20] Erskine (1971), pp. 284-85.

[21] U.S. Department of Commerce (1974), p. 340.

[22] Oppenheimer (1970), Table 1.4, p. 11.

> In 1958, and again in 1959, I went through issue after issue of the three major women's magazines . . . without finding a single heroine who had a career, a commitment to any work, art, profession or mission in the world, other than "Occupation: housewife."[23]

It was not until the 1960's that society began to appraise realistically the position of women inside and outside the family setting. Publication of Betty Friedan's The Feminine Mystique contributed to a growing awareness of the limited set of choices that had been available to women (especially those with a college education) during the 1950's.[24] In the 1960's, such books as Caroline Bird's Born Female raised a new set of issues about women's roles: their limited options within the labor force.[25] In the meantime, the full-time housewife was no longer the norm for all age groups of women: by 1967, 53 percent of women 20 to 24 years old, 48 percent of those 35 to 44, and 52 percent of those 45 to 54 were in the labor force. Even those in the principal childbearing years of 25 to 34 years of age had a labor force participation rate of 42 percent.[26]

Thus, by the time the initial survey reported in this volume was taken, the presence of women in the labor force--whether married or single, with or without children--was no longer a matter of great controversy. Instead greater emphasis was being placed on issues involving the employment conditions of those women in the labor force, e.g., topics such as those treated in subsequent chapters.

IV THE FIVE-YEAR PERIOD 1967-1972

With the foregoing historical context in mind, it is appropriate now to present an overview of the changes that occurred in the lives and labor market experiences of our sample of women over the five-year period that is the principal focus of this volume. The longitudinal data presented in this concluding section serve as a valuable backdrop against which to evaluate the more intensive analyses of aspects of the women's experience that are presented in the remaining chapters of the volume. We begin with an analysis of the changes that occurred over the five-year period in their marital and family status, their health, and their attitudes toward market activity, and then turn our attention to a number of dimensions of their labor market activity and income.

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[23] Friedan (1963), p. 38.

[24] Friedan (1963).

[25] Bird (1968).

[26] U.S. Department of Labor (1975), Table A-2, p. 205.

Marital and Family Characteristics

Slightly under a tenth of the white respondents and somewhat under a fifth of the black changed their marital status between 1966 and 1972 (Table 1A-2).[27] The net effect of the gross changes that occurred was to reduce the proportions of married women living with their husbands from 87 to 84 percent for white women and from 66 to 60 for blacks. Among whites the number of divorced or separated women rose from 6 to 8 percent and the number of widows from 2 to 3 percent of the total. The proportion of black women in each of these categories in 1972 was exactly three times as high.

Of far greater quantitative importance in affecting the labor market activity of mothers over the half decade were the changes that occurred in the age distribution of their children living at home (Table 1A-3). Among women who were married and living with their husbands in both 1967 and 1972, the proportion with children under 18 years of age in the household declined from 86 to 75 percent for whites and from 76 to 68 percent for blacks. On the other hand, the decline in the proportion with children under six was much smaller--from 16 to 14 percent of the white women and from 18 to 16 percent of the blacks.

Health

A substantial minority of women in their thirties and forties have health problems that affect the amount or kind of work they can do (Chart 1.2). A fourth of the white women and a third of the black women reported such problems in 1967, in 1972, or in both years. Within both racial groups health problems are more pervasive among the older than among the younger members of the cohort. Nevertheless, among the total group of white women the incidence of work-limiting conditions was no greater in 1972 than in 1967, for 8 percent experienced a deterioration in health and an equal proportion reported an improvement. Among blacks, on the other hand, there was a net increase in the proportion of women who reported health problems--from 19 percent in 1967 to 26 percent in 1972. The proportion of women whose health deteriorated was related to age--being only 2 percentage points for those who in 1972 were in their late thirties, but 8 to 11 percentage points for those in their forties.

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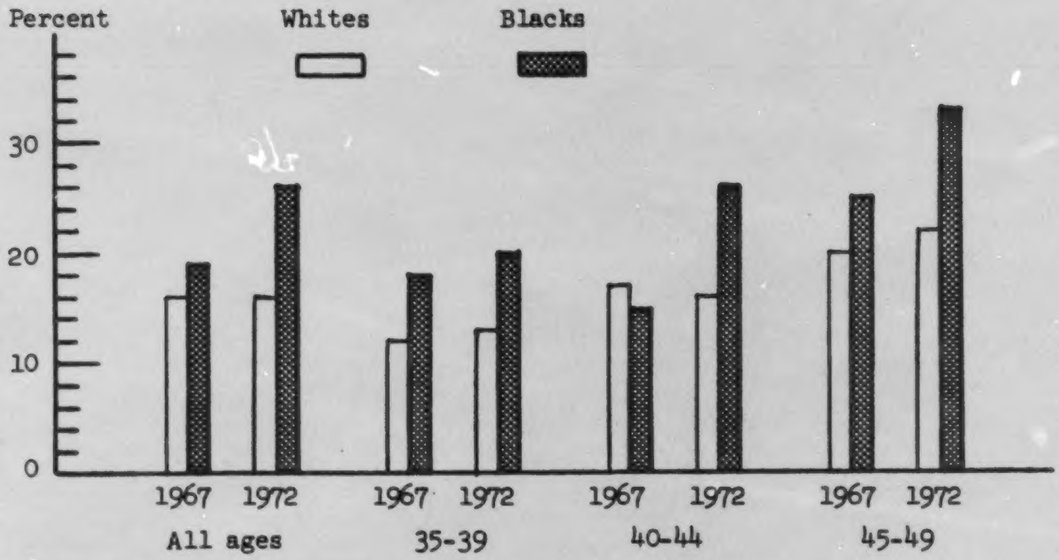
[27] Tables cited in this section appear in the Statistical Appendix. Unless otherwise indicated, all comparisons over two or more survey years are based on a universe restricted to respondents who provided the relevant information in both (all) years.

Chart 1.2 Percent of Respondents with Health Problems, by Race and 1971 Age: 1967 and 1972



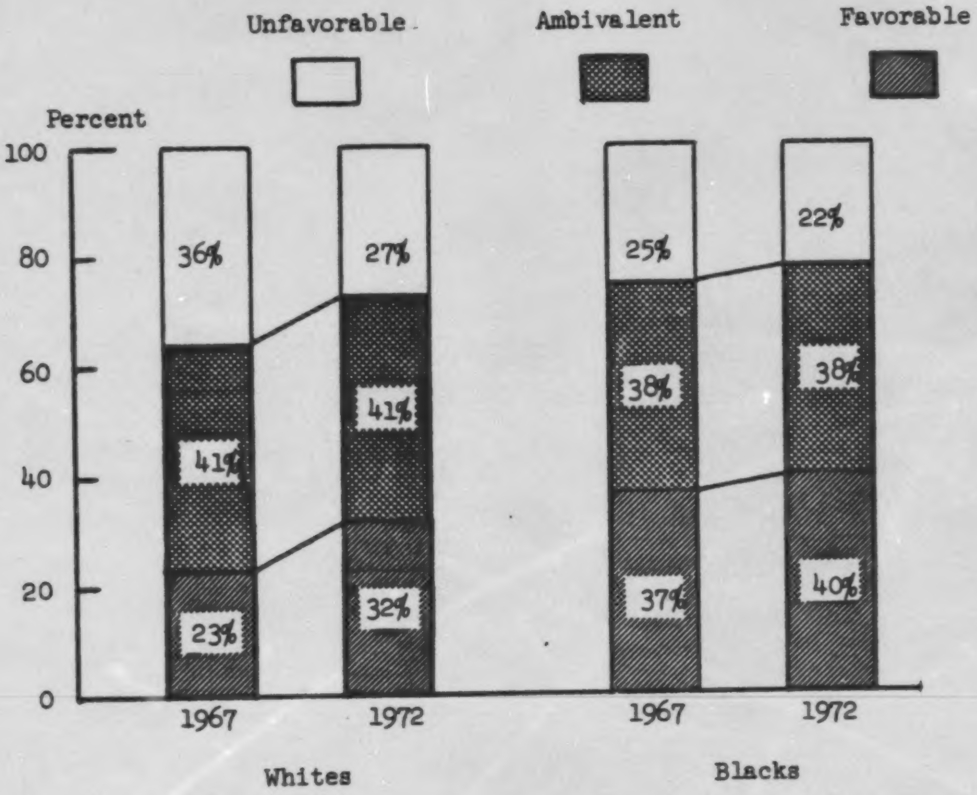
Source: Appendix Table 1A-4.

Attitude toward Market Work

The perceptible change during the five-year period in the attitudes of respondents toward the appropriate role of married women with children indicates a continuation of the longer-run trends previously noted. Respondents were asked an identical set of questions in both 1967 and 1972 designed to measure their views on the propriety of labor market activity by married women with school-age children (Chart 1.3). The proportion of white women with the most favorable views increased from 23 to 32 percent between 1967 and 1972, while those with the least favorable views decreased by an identical amount--from 36 to 27 percent. As compared with their white counterparts, black women in 1967 had expressed considerably more tolerant views of market work. While they, too, became somewhat more favorably disposed to such activity over the five-year period, the change in their case was much smaller. As a consequence, the racial difference in attitude on this issue was less pronounced in 1972 than in 1967.

There is also some evidence that respondents perceived their husbands to be somewhat more favorably disposed to their working in 1972 than in 1967 (Chart 1.4). In families whose wives were employed as wage and salary workers in both 1967 and 1972 there was only a very slight net change--a 2 percentage point increase in the case of both whites and blacks in the proportion of women who reported that their husbands liked the idea of

Chart 1.3 Attitude toward Market Work, by Race: 1967 and 1972

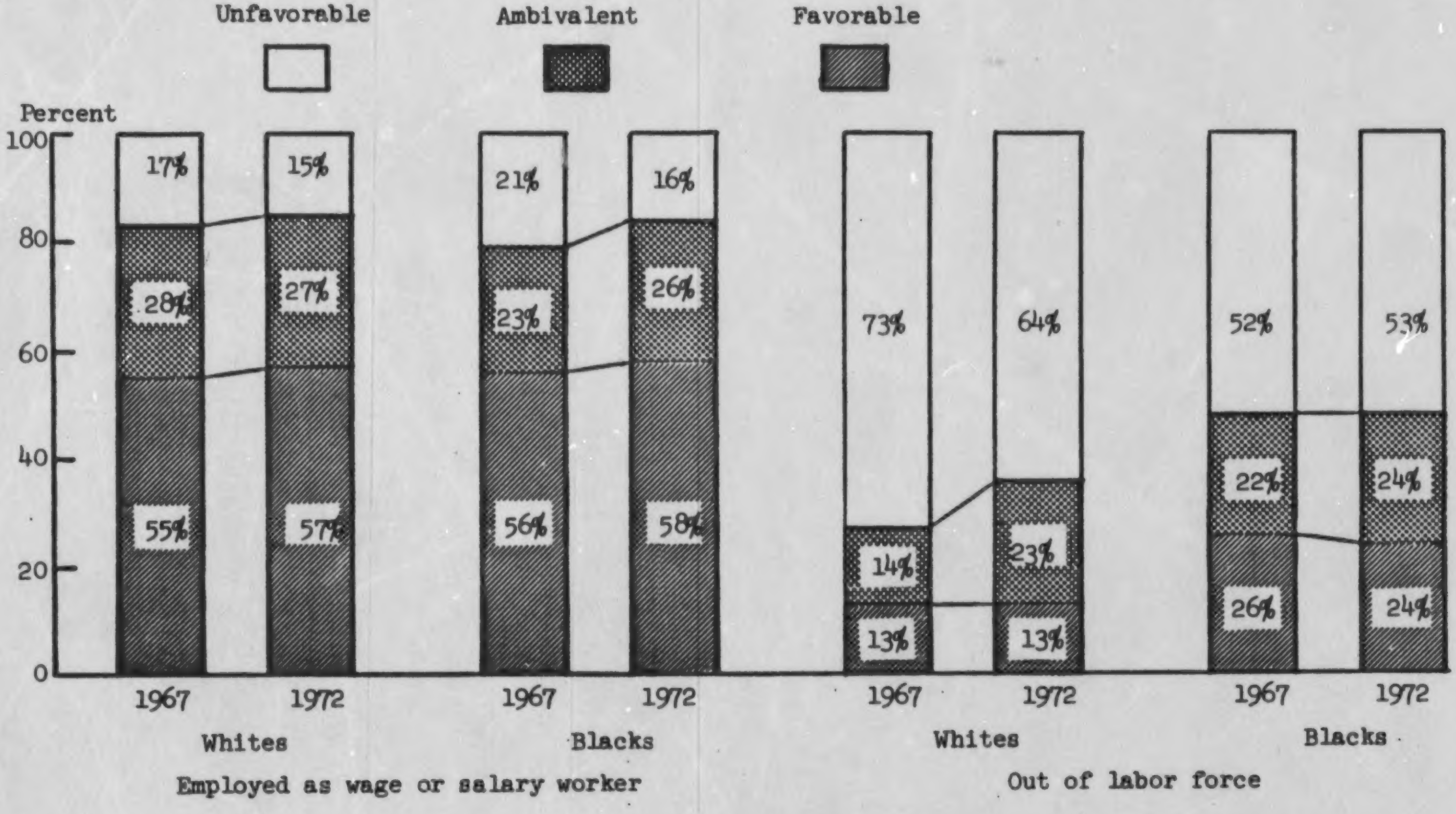


Source: Appendix Table 1.5.

their working. For white women who were out of the labor force in both years the evidence points to no strengthening of positive attitudes by husbands toward their work activity, but it does indicate some melting of opposition. There was a 9 percentage point decrease in the number who reported unfavorable attitudes by their husbands and a corresponding increase in the "undecided" category. No such pattern is discernible in the case of black women.

It is, incidentally, interesting to note that there is virtually no difference between the reported attitudes of the husbands of black and white working women. However, in the case of women not in the labor force, black women's husbands have perceptibly more favorable attitudes toward labor market activity by their wives than do husbands of white women, but the difference appears to be shrinking.

Chart 1.4 Husband's Attitude toward Respondent's Working, by Respondent's Race and Labor Force Status: 1967 and 1972



Source: Appendix Table 1A-6.

Labor Force and Employment Status

The following chapter examines in considerable detail the changes in labor force participation that occurred over the periods 1967 to 1969 and 1969 to 1971. Here we discuss briefly some of the trends over the full five-year period 1967 to 1972. In order to put them into perspective, it is instructive to examine 1967 and 1972 cross-sectional data from the Current Population Survey for women between the ages of 35 and 44.[28] The overall labor force participation rate for that age group increased approximately 4 percentage points--from 48 percent in 1967 to 52 percent in 1972. The trends were quite different, however, for blacks and whites. While the rate for the latter increased from 46 to 51 percent, the participation rate of black women remained virtually unchanged at about 61 percent. Thus, the differential between whites and blacks declined over the period from about 14 to 10 percentage points.

As compared with the foregoing cross-sectional data, the longitudinal data of the present study show a larger increase in labor force participation for the white women and a decrease for the black as the cohort aged over the five-year period (Chart 1.5). The white participation rate rose by about 9 points, while that for blacks dropped by 4 points. Thus, the 20-point black-white differential at the beginning of the period was reduced by almost two-thirds by 1972. The trend among whites is dominated by women with children. Among those who had never borne children the white labor force participation rate remained virtually stable over the period (Table 1A-8).

As judged by status in the terminal years, there was considerable stability in labor force status over the period (Table 1A-9). Among both whites and blacks about four-fifths of the women who were employed in 1967 were employed also in 1972. Moreover, about two-thirds of those who were out of the labor force in 1967 were also out in 1972. While employed women and those out of the labor force in 1967 were equally likely to be unemployed in the survey week of 1972 (2 percent), the corresponding likelihood for a woman who was unemployed in 1967 was four times as great.

The stability of labor force attachment is also manifested by data relating to the 12-month periods prior to the 1967 and 1972 surveys (Table 1A-10).[29] Of those women who spent no time at all in the labor force in the earlier period, three-fifths were also out of the labor force for the entire 12-month period prior to the 1972 survey. At the other extreme, of those who were in the labor force at least 50 weeks in 1966, over half were also full-year participants prior to the 1972 survey and

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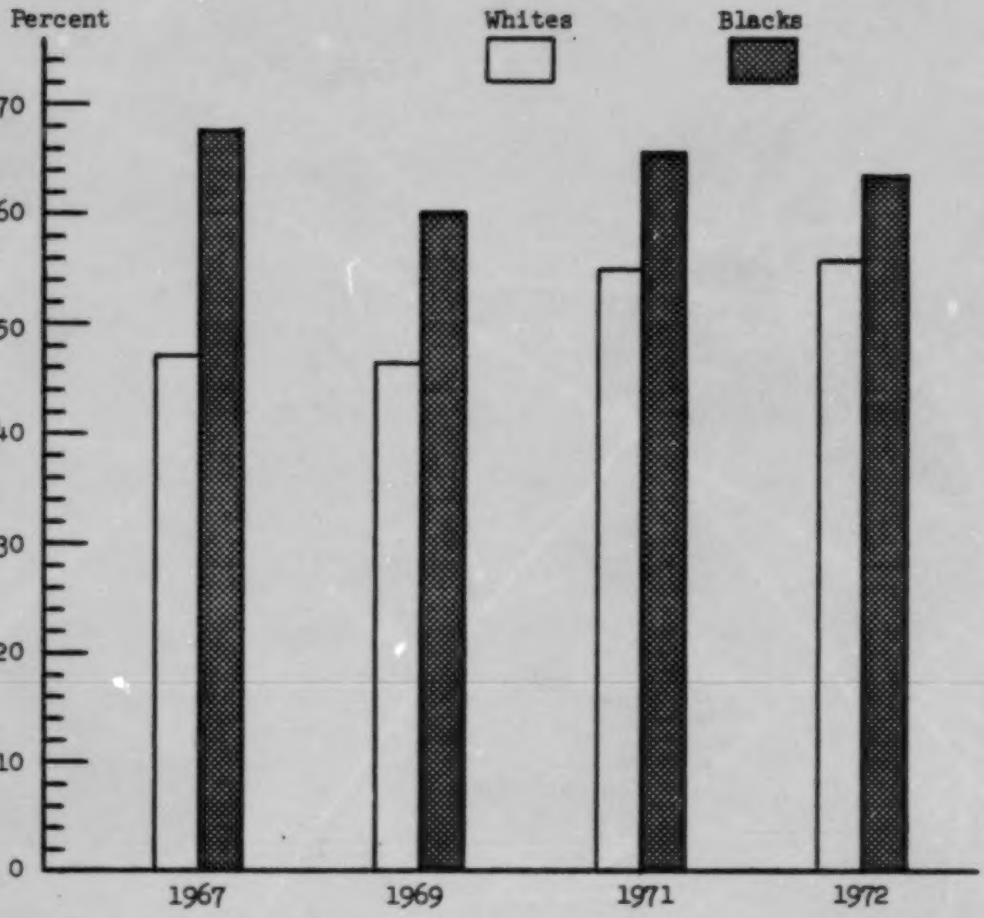
[28] U.S. Department of Labor (1975), p. 205.

[29] To be more accurate, the data for the earlier period relate to calendar year 1966.

Chart 1.5 Survey Week Labor Force Participation Rates, by Race: 1967 to 1972



Source: Appendix Table 1A-7.

as many as four-fifths were in for at least 40 weeks. The pattern was almost identical for whites and blacks.

Annual data for periods immediately preceding the 1967 and 1972 survey dates also make it clear that unemployment, far from being a random phenomenon, tends to be visited upon the same individuals from one year to another (Table 1A-11). While about nine out of ten women with some labor force exposure experienced no unemployment lasting as long as a week in calendar year 1966, the minority who experienced it were much more likely than others to have some unemployment in the year preceding the 1972 interview. Moreover, the greater the number of weeks unemployed in

1966, the greater the likelihood of unemployment and the longer its duration in the later year.

Retrospective Perception of Progress over the Five-Year Period

Before turning to an examination of changes during the half decade in several aspects of employment and income, it is of some interest to examine the respondents' perceptions of the course of their work lives over the five-year period. In the 1972 interview they were asked "All in all, so far as your work is concerned, would you say that you've progressed during the past five years, moved backward, or just about held your own?" The responses to this question are shown in Table 1A-12 for those respondents who were in the labor force in both the 1967 and 1972 survey weeks. It is impressive that only 4 percent of the women--an identical proportion of whites and blacks--believed that they had "moved backward" over the period. In contrast, three-fifths of the white women and half of the blacks reported that they had "progressed," while the remainder believed that they had "held their own." Although there were no age differences in the small proportions who reported retrogression, progress was somewhat more likely to be perceived by younger than older women.

Comparative Hours, 1967 and 1972

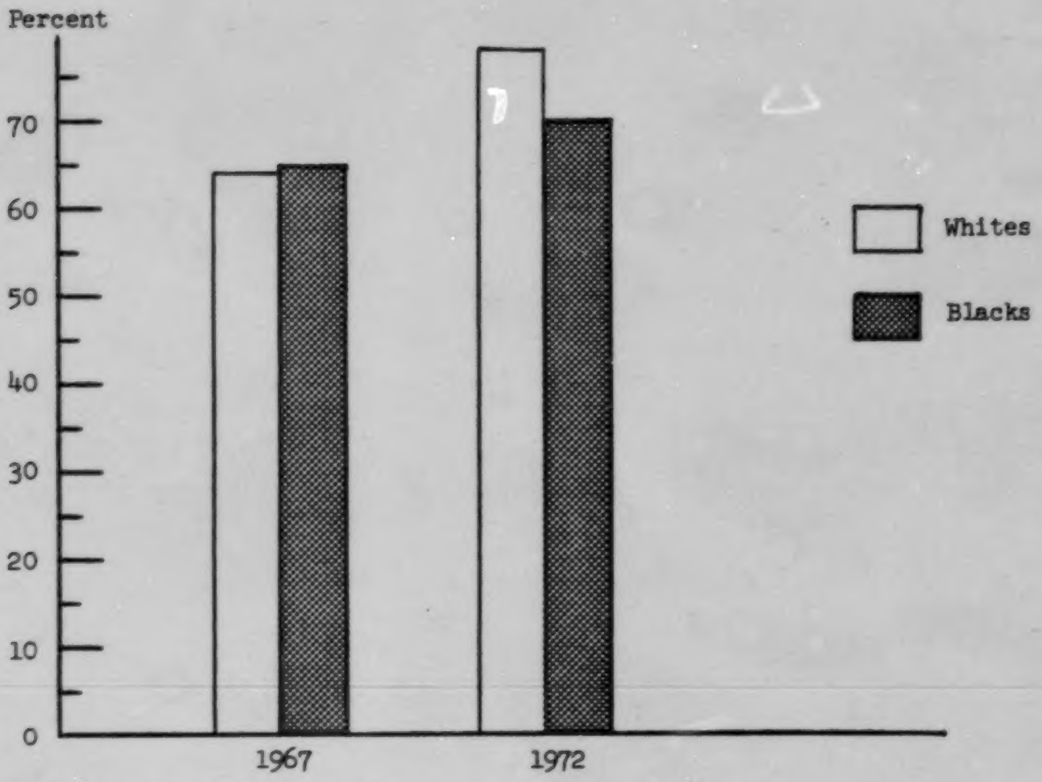
Among both white and black women the proportion of full-time employees among those who were employed as wage and salary workers at both dates was higher in 1972 than in 1967 (Chart 1.6). The increase was greater for the whites, among whom full-time employment rose from 64 to 78 percent of the total as compared with an increase from 65 to 70 percent for the blacks. As a consequence, while the proportions of full-time workers were virtually identical for the two races at the beginning of the five-year period, a differential of 8 points in favor of the white women had developed by 1972.

The Journey to Work

Means of travel Most white women in their thirties and forties who work as wage and salary earners get to work in their own automobiles (Table 1A-14). In 1972, for example, this proportion was as high as four-fifths, and there was very little difference between full-time and part-time workers in this respect. Public transport, on the other hand, is used by only about one in twenty of the white women. As might have been expected, black women are considerably less likely than white to drive to work, and in their case, there is a substantial difference between part-time and full-time workers. Overall, only about half of the black respondents reported driving to work in 1972, the proportions being 57 and 33 percent, respectively, for full-time and part-time employees. As compared with whites, blacks were almost four times as likely to use public transportation (18 versus 5 percent) and almost three times as likely to ride with someone else (16 versus 6 percent).

Between 1966 and 1972 there had been a perceptible increase in the use of private automobile--more pronounced for black women than white

Chart 1.6 Percent Full-Time Workers, by Race: 1967 and 1972



Source: Appendix Table 1A-13.

women and for full-time than for part-time workers. The overall proportion of white women using their own automobiles rose from 71 to 80 percent; for blacks the rise was from 41 to 52 percent.

Travel time Despite these changes in means of travel to work, women in our sample who worked at both dates spent about the same amount of time getting to work in 1972 as they had in 1967--over a quarter of an hour on average for white women and over 20 minutes for blacks (Table 1A-15). The greater travel time for blacks in both years, it should be noted, prevailed among both part-time and full-time workers and among both those using their own automobiles and those travelling by other means.

Only in the case of part-time workers was there a perceptible change in travel time between 1967 and 1972, which operated in different directions for whites and blacks. White part-time workers experienced an increase in travel time, while the opposite was true for blacks. These trends were largely attributable to those using means of travel other than their own automobiles.

Real Average Hourly Earnings

Average hourly earnings of women in their thirties and forties who were employed as wage or salary workers rose faster than the price level between 1967 and 1972 (Chart 1.7). Adjusted for the increase in the Consumer Price Index, earnings of employed white women were 9 percent higher in 1972 than in 1967; for blacks the corresponding increase was 26 percent. Relative increases were greater over the 1967 to 1969 period than over the period from 1969 to 1971 (Table 1A-16). As the result of the larger relative increase in black earnings, the white-black earnings ratio shrank from 1.27 in 1967 to 1.10 in 1972.

When attention is confined to that subset of women who were employed in all four of the survey weeks (1967, 1969, 1971, 1972), the relative increase over the five-year period is about twice as high for white women as when all women employed in 1967 are compared with all those employed in 1972 (Chart 1.7). For blacks, on the other hand, the increase was no greater than for all women considered cross-sectionally. Nevertheless, the increase for blacks was greater than that for whites, so that the white-black earnings ratio for this subset of women shrank from 1.18 to 1.11. Another way of saying all of this is that although black women in this age group generally were improving their earnings position relative to white women over the period, the improvement was not so great among those who were continuously employed as among the total group.

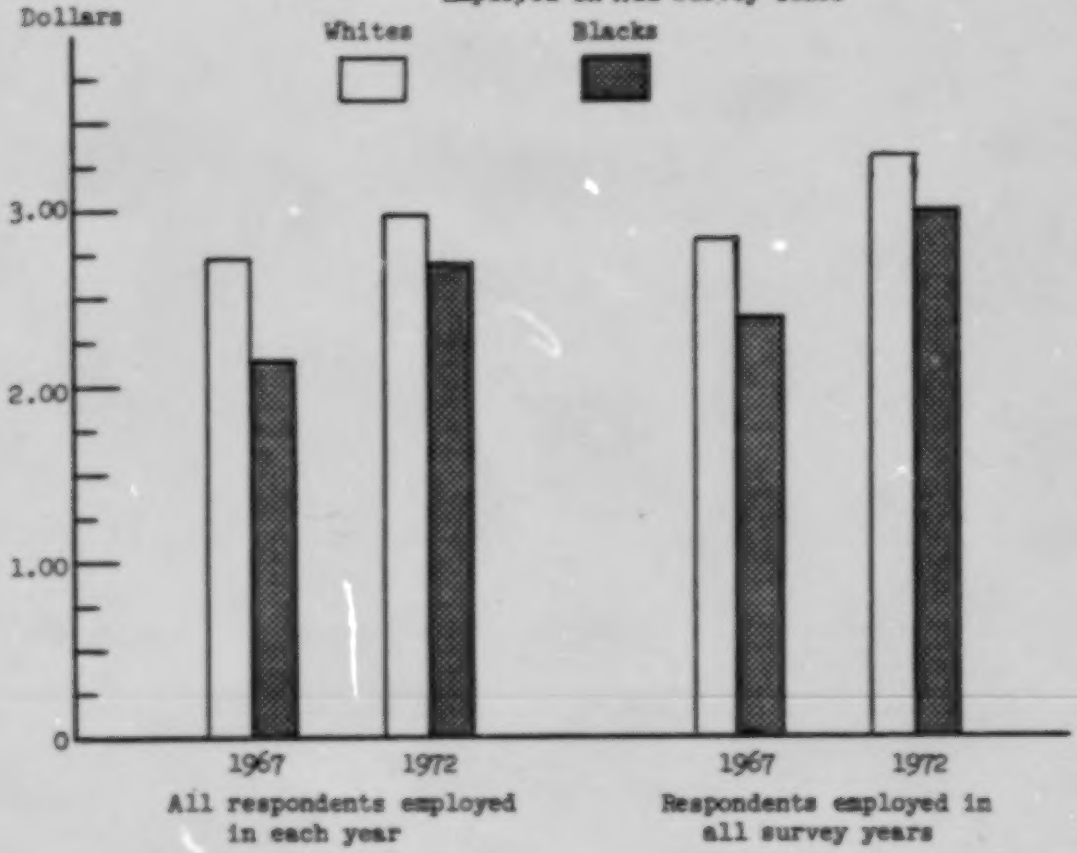
Real Annual Earnings

The 1971 average annual earnings of wage and salary workers who were employed in all survey weeks was $6,244 for white women and $5,369 for black (Chart 1.8). In real terms, these figures represented increases over 1966 earnings of 30 percent for white women and 40 percent for black. The fact that relative increases in annual earnings surpassed the relative increases in hourly earnings for both blacks and whites reflects the rise over the five-year period in hours worked per week and weeks worked per year. As a consequence of the greater relative earnings increases of black women, the white-black ratio of annual earnings dropped over the five-year period from 1.26 to 1.16.

Contribution of Employed Wives to Total Family Income

In married-spouse-present families, total 1971 income was considerably higher where the wife was employed than where she was not. In white families in which the wife had wage and salary earnings, 1971 family income averaged $15,954 in contrast to $13,536 for families in which the wife had no such income; the corresponding figures for black families were $11,731 and $8,331. Moreover, the contribution of respondents' earnings to total family income was substantial, amounting to 26 percent for whites and 35 percent for blacks (Table 1A-19). These proportions were surprisingly

Chart 1.7 Real Average Hourly Earnings, by Race: 1967 and 1972 Respondents Employed in Each Year Compared with Respondents Employed in All Survey Years



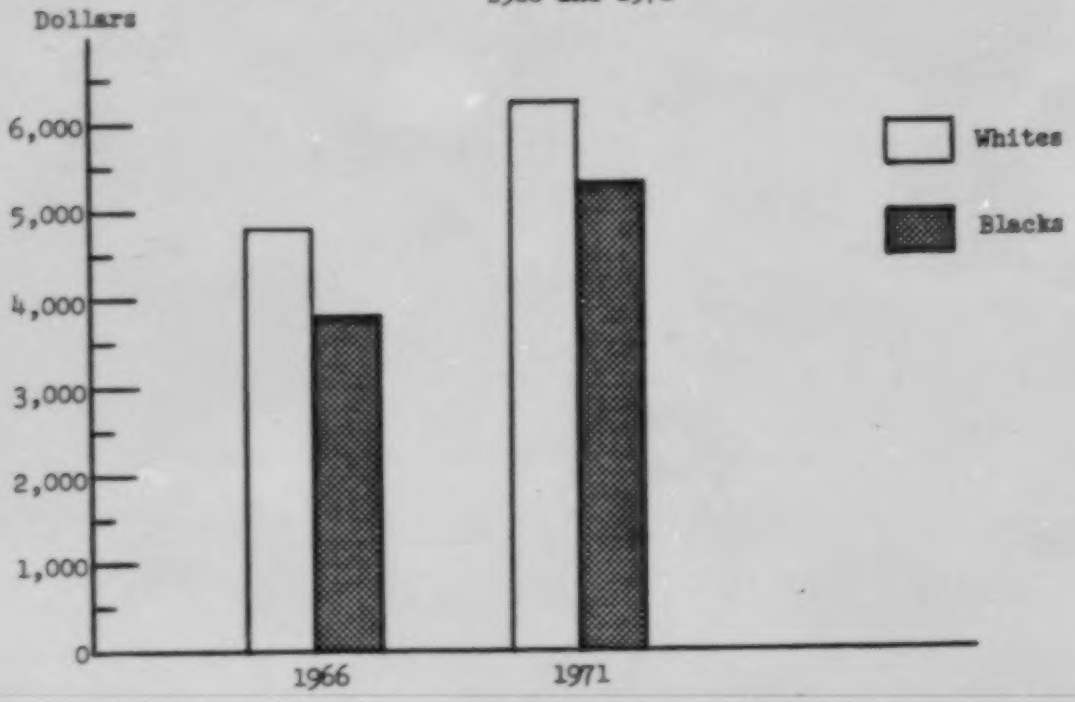
Source: Appendix Tables 1A-16 and 1A-17.

similar across family income categories, except for the lowest income category of whites. Among white families with incomes under $8,000, the wife's earnings accounted on average for almost one-half. In every other income category, however, the wife's proportion fell within the relatively narrow range of 24 to 28 percent. Among blacks, wife's earnings ranged between 26 percent and 38 percent across all income categories.

Summary

Speaking in terms of averages, the labor market position of women who were in their thirties and early forties in 1967 improved over the ensuing half decade. As many of the women were freed from the responsibility of caring for young children and as attitudes toward market work became

Chart 1.8 Mean Wage and Salary Income in 1971 Dollars, by Race: 1966 and 1971



Source: Appendix Table 1A-18.

somewhat more permissive, the extent of labor force participation increased; among those at work, full-time employment became more prevalent. However, while there was movement in both directions over the five-year period, a large majority of women were in the same labor force status in 1972 as in 1967.

Of the women who were in the labor force at both dates, a majority perceived that they had progressed during the period, and only 1 in 25 reported retrogression. These attitudes perhaps reflected the substantial increases in real hourly and annual earnings that occurred over the period, and the even larger increases experienced by those whose labor market participation was continuous. In 1971 employed married women made substantial contributions to family income--about one-fourth for whites and one-third for blacks--and the proportions were remarkably stable across family income categories.

In many respects, differences between black and white women became less pronounced over the half decade. For example, because labor force participation of blacks fell while that of whites rose, there was less difference in participation rates in 1972 than there had been in 1967. Differences in attitude toward market work also became smaller over the period. Finally, because black women enjoyed larger relative gains in earnings, white-black earnings differentials declined between 1967 and 1972. As will be noted in a later chapter, however, the racial differential in occupational status actually widened somewhat, which may explain why larger proportions of whites than of blacks perceived progress over the period.

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CHAPTER II

LONGITUDINAL PATTERNS OF FEMALE LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION

Francine D. Blau*

The extent and determinants of female labor force participation have been the focus of considerable attention on the part of social scientists. However, the empirical investigation of this subject has relied primarily on cross-sectional data. Thus, the longitudinal patterns of women's involvement in market work remain a relatively unexplored area. In this chapter, we attempt to extend our knowledge of female labor market behavior by summarizing these longitudinal patterns. Our purpose in this investigation is primarily descriptive, an effort to provide information on longitudinal patterns of labor market activity among women in their late thirties and forties which is comparable to the cross-sectional information currently readily available from a myriad of published sources.[1]

The NLS provides two types of data regarding the extent of market involvement over time of women in this age group. First, at the time of the initial survey in 1967, detailed work histories were obtained from respondents. In the first section, we summarize the previous work experience of women in the sample. Second, over the survey period, information is available regarding entries into and exits from the labor force. In the second section, we take advantage of these data on comparative labor market status to examine the relationship of these labor market flows to changes in participation rates and to the average level of experience of women in the labor force.[2] In the third section, we briefly summarize the major conclusions of the paper.

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[1] For tabulations of cross-sectional data on labor force participation rates, see, for example, the Manpower Report of the President, April 1975. For examples of empirical studies of female labor force participation utilizing cross-sectional data, see Mincer (1962), Cain (1966), Bowen and Finegan (1969), and Sweet (1973).

I LIFE-CYCLE PATTERNS OF PARTICIPATION

In this section the retrospective work histories of women in the sample during the years between school completion and the 1967 survey are summarized. The focus is upon two major areas where such information on work experience may be particularly instructive.

First, we investigate the extent to which three variables which are strongly related to the probability of labor force participation at a point in time--marital status, presence of children, and race--are similarly associated with the extent of work experience during the period prior to the 1967 survey. While the reasons for expecting these groups to differ with regard to previous market involvement are fairly obvious, the magnitude of such differences is of interest.[3] Moreover, it is important to control for these factors in examining other relationships.

Second, we examine the consistency in the pattern of labor market involvement of women in the sample in the period up to 1967. We expect women to exhibit consistent patterns of participation for two reasons. First, many of the variables associated with labor force participation at one point in time--for example, level of education, extent of household responsibilities, relative magnitude of income available from other sources, tastes for market work--are likely to manifest an influence over behavior during other periods as well. Second, to the extent that earnings are related to experience, women with greater labor market experience will command higher market wage rates than women with similar characteristics, but less experience. Thus, at any moment in time the incentive to engage in market work is likely to be greater for women with more work experience than for those with less.

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[2] Throughout this analysis we have restricted the sample to respondents who were interviewed in each of the three survey years: 1967, 1969, and 1971, in order to examine a fixed population. It may also be helpful to note at this point that in order to be comparable, entry and exit behavior must be studied over intervals of equal length. Thus, we examine entry and exit rates during the 1967 to 1969 and 1969 to 1971 periods. Unlike the other chapters in this volume, this one does not utilize data collected in the 1972 survey.

[3] For cross-sectional analyses of differentials in labor force participation with respect to these and other factors, see, for example, Cain (1966); Bowen and Finegan (1969); and Sweet (1973).

While the reasons for expecting consistent patterns of participation are fairly straightforward, the magnitude of this relationship is of considerable interest. It is measured in two ways. First, we examine the extent to which labor force participation at a point in time--in this case, the 1967 interview date--is related to prior labor market experience. Our expectation is that, on average, labor force participants will exhibit a pattern of higher past involvement in market work than nonparticipants. In other words, we hypothesize that labor force participation at a point in time will be selective of women with greater prior labor market experience. Second, among ever-married women with children (the majority of respondents) we investigate the extent to which participation in market work in one interval of their lives, e.g., between school and marriage, is positively related to their participation in market activity in a subsequent interval, e.g., between marriage and the birth of their first child.[4]

It is important to note that when the retrospective work experience data were obtained, respondents were asked in how many years they had worked six or more months. Thus, the reader should bear in mind that a "year" of work experience under this definition may represent less than a full year of actual market work.[5] Similarly, women who have accumulated no "years" of work experience during a particular period in their lives may in fact have worked less than six months in one or more of the years in that interval. For ease of exposition we shall refer to women who have not worked six or more months in any of the years elapsed in an interval as having no work experience in the interval.

Post School Work Experience

Longitudinal data regarding the proportion of years worked by women between school completion and 1967 generally confirm what would be expected from cross-sectional findings. Table 2.1 shows the proportion of years worked by women in the sample during this period by race and marital status/child categories. Among both whites and blacks, ever-married women worked on average a smaller proportion of the years elapsed since school completion than never-married women and, particularly among whites, the differences are of considerable magnitude. Further, where sufficient data are available, it may be seen that the presence of children reduces the extent of work intensity for both marital status groups. Racial

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[4] From the retrospective work histories, data on the extent of participation in market work are available for all respondents for the years between school completion and 1967. For ever-married women with children, data are available on work experience in three intervals: between school completion and first marriage, between first marriage and birth or acquisition of first child, and between birth or acquisition of first child and 1967.

[5] An additional caveat is that full- and part-time work are not distinguished.

Table 2.1 Proportion of Years Worked between School Completion and 1967, by Marital and Family Status, Labor Force Status in 1967 and Race[a]

(Percentage distributions)

Marital and family status, and labor force status in 1967	WHITES						BLACKS					
	Total number of respondents	Percent distribution by proportion of years worked between school and 1967[b]				Mean percent	Total number of respondents	Percent distribution by proportion of years worked between school and 1967[b]				Mean percent
		0	1-25	26-75	76-100			0	1-25	26-75	76-100	
Total or average	2,858	8	28	43	21	44	1,089	9	18	38	36	55
Ever married	2,715	8	29	44	18	41	1,006	8	19	39	34	54
With children	2,546	9	31	46	14	39	941	9	19	41	31	52
No children	169	3	6	22	69	77	65	0	10	23	67	78
Never married	143	9	2	11	79	83	83	10	8	22	58	68
With children	d	d	d	d	d	d	44	11	12	33	44	59
No children	138	9	1	9	81	84	39	9	5	12	75	77
In labor force 1967	1,422	1	17	46	37	59	731	2	12	42	45	66
Ever married	1,299	1	19	50	31	56	674	2	13	44	42	64
With children	1,173	1	20	54	26	52	619	2	13	45	39	62
No children	126	0	5	14	81	86	55	0	8	19	72	81
Never married	123	0	1	8	91	93	57	2	3	18	78	83
With children	d	d	d	d	d	d	27	5	3	25	66	78
No children	120	0	1	7	92	93	30	0	3	11	87	87
Out of labor force 1967	1,436	15	39	39	7	28	358	23	31	31	15	32
Ever married[e]	1,416	15	39	40	7	29	332	22	32	31	15	32
With children	1,373	15	40	39	6	28	322	23	32	31	15	32
No children	43	11	10	49	31	53	e	e	e	e	e	e
Never married	20	c	c	c	c	c	26	29	22	36	14	30

a Respondents interviewed in 1967, 1969, and 1971.
b Rows may not sum to 100 due to rounding.
c Percentages not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.
d Never-married respondents with children are included in the total but not shown separately.
e Ever-married respondents with no children are included in the total but not shown separately.

differentials in work experience between blacks and whites are most pronounced among ever-married women with children (EMWC). Black women in this category had worked on average 52 percent of the years elapsed since school completion as compared to 39 percent for their white counterparts. While a considerably higher proportion of black than white women in the EMWC group worked for more than three-quarters of the years elapsed, the same proportion of black as of white women, 9 percent, had no work experience during this interval.

As noted earlier, the NIS data permit us to explore an additional question regarding the work histories of women. At any particular point in time, some women from each race and marital status/child category are labor force participants, while others are out of the labor force. We expect the two groups will differ in terms of their past work experience. The data in Table 2.1 suggest that such a difference exists and that it is of considerable magnitude. When we control for labor force status as of the 1967 interview date, we find that within every race and marital status/child category, labor force participants have worked a substantially higher proportion of the years elapsed than those outside the labor force. To illustrate, among whites in the EMWC group, those who were in the labor force in 1967 had worked 52 percent of the years since school completion, while those out of the labor force at the survey date had worked an average of 28 percent of this time--15 percent of the latter group had no work experience in this interval.

In Table 2.2, we examine the differences in work experience between the 1967 labor force and nonlabor force groups among ever-married women with children. In this case we consider the period subsequent to the birth or acquisition of the first child. Particularly among whites, the experience differential between the two labor force groups is greatly increased during the more recent period. White labor force participants had worked 45 percent of the time elapsed since they assumed the care of their first child, as compared to only 12 percent for nonparticipants--60 percent of the latter group had no work experience during this interval.

Work Experience of Ever-Married Women with Children over the Marriage and Birth Cycle

In this section, we examine the work experience of ever-married women with children during three intervals in their lives. First, we consider the relationship of work status in the interval between school completion and first marriage to work status in the interval between first marriage and birth or acquisition of first child. Second, we examine the relationship of work status in the interval between marriage and child to the extent of subsequent labor market experience.

Table 2.3 shows the work status of women between marriage and child, controlling for premarital work status. In order to clarify the relationship between work status in these two intervals, the sample has been restricted to women for whom school completion occurred prior to first marriage and first marriage preceded the birth or acquisition of first

Table 2.2 Proportion of Years Worked between Birth of First Child and 1967, by Labor Force Status in 1967, and Race: Ever-Married Respondents with Children[a]

Labor force status 1967	Total number of respondents	Percent distribution by proportion of years worked between child and 1967[b]				Mean percent
		0	1-25	26-75	76-100	
	WHITES					
Total or average	2,609	35	26	27	12	27
In labor force 1967	1,206	7	29	42	23	45
Out of labor force 1967	1,403	60	23	14	3	12
	BLACKS					
Total or average	1,000	14	18	35	34	51
In labor force 1967	661	4	13	40	43	62
Out of labor force 1967	339	36	27	24	14	28

a Respondents interviewed in 1967, 1969, and 1971.

b Rows may not sum to 100 due to rounding.

child. Two post-marriage work status categories have been distinguished: worked one or more years between first marriage and first child--MC; did not work one or more years between first marriage and first child--NMC.

As expected, there is a strong relationship between work status prior to marriage and work status in the subsequent interval. Among both blacks and whites, approximately three-fifths of the SM group worked in the interval between marriage and child, as contrasted to one-fifth of the NSM group.

In Table 2.4, we show the extent of post-child work experience among ever-married women with children, conditional upon their work status in the interval between first marriage and child. In order to exhaust the sample, we have distinguished an "other" category composed of women for whom the birth or acquisition of first child occurred prior to or in the same year as first marriage.

Among both black and white women, those who had worked in the interval between marriage and child exhibited a pattern of higher work intensity during the years after they assumed the care of their first child than those who had not worked in this interval. For the most part, those in the "other" category appear to pursue an intermediate pattern between the MC and NMC groups with regard to their post-child work experience. This suggests that the assumption of child care responsibilities in the same

Table 2.3 Work Status between First Marriage and Birth of First Child, by Work Status between School Completion and Marriage and Race: Ever-Married Respondents with Children[a,b]

(Percentage distributions)

Work status before marriage	Total number of respondents	Percent distribution by work status between marriage and child	
		MC[e]	NMC[f]
	WHITES		
Total or average	1,796	54	46
SM[c]	1,490	60	40
NSM[d]	306	19	81
	BLACKS		
Total or average	223	43	57
SM[c]	149	57	43
NSM[d]	74	19	81

a Respondents interviewed in 1967, 1969, and 1971.

b Includes only respondents for whom school completion occurred prior to first marriage and first marriage occurred prior to birth or acquisition of first child.

c Respondents worked one or more years between school completion and first marriage.

d Respondents did not work one or more years between school completion and first marriage.

e Respondents worked one or more years between first marriage and birth or acquisition of first child.

f Respondents did not work one or more years between first marriage and birth or acquisition of first child.

year or prior to marriage may have a negative effect on work experience in the post-child period.

Summary

In summary, an examination of the retrospective data collected in the 1967 survey supports some inferences that might be made both from presently available cross-sectional data and from economic theory. First we have found that the cross-sectional differences in labor force participation rates by marital status, presence of children and race are

Table 2.4 Proportion of Years Worked between Birth of First Child and 1967, by Work Status between First Marriage and Birth of First Child and Race: Ever-Married Respondents with Children[a]

(Percentage distributions)

Work status before birth of child	Total number of respondents	Percent distribution by proportion of years worked between child and 1967[b]				Mean percent
		0	1-25	26-75	76-100	
	WHITES					
Total or average	2,609	35	26	27	12	27
MC[c]	1,186	30	23	31	16	33
NMC[d]	1,162	42	28	23	7	21
Other[e]	261	32	26	29	14	29
	BLACKS					
Total or average	1,000	14	18	35	34	51
MC[c]	205	7	11	29	53	66
NMC[d]	364	21	20	38	21	41
Other[e]	431	13	18	34	35	52

[a] Respondents interviewed in 1967, 1969, and 1971.

[b] Rows may not sum to 100 due to rounding.

[c] Respondents worked one or more years between first marriage and birth or acquisition of first child.

[d] Respondents did not work one or more years between first marriage and birth or acquisition of first child.

[e] Birth or acquisition of first child in same year or prior to first marriage.

reflected in differing work intensities for these groups during the pre-1967 period. Second, after controlling for these factors, we have found that women in this age group exhibit relatively consistent patterns of labor force participation in the period preceding the 1967 survey. This consistency was demonstrated along two dimensions. First, we have found that participation in market work at any point in time, in this case the 1967 interview date, tends to be positively related to the extent of prior labor market experience. Second, we have found that for ever-married women with children (the majority of respondents) work experience in one interval of their lives, e.g., between school and marriage, tends to be positively related to their participation in market activity in a subsequent interval, e.g., between marriage and the birth or acquisition of their first child.

II ENTRIES, EXITS AND CHANGES IN LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES, 1967 TO 1971

The dynamics of changes in the labor force participation rates of women in the sample over the four-year period 1967 to 1971 may be examined in terms of the longitudinal patterns of their participation in market work. Changes over time in the labor force participation rate (LFPR) of a specific population group are governed by the magnitude of the flow of entries into the labor force relative to the flow of exits from the labor force.

Some observers have implicitly assumed that it is possible to infer this underlying entry and exit behavior from observed trends in LFPR's. For example, it has been suggested that secular increases in female LFPR's, fueled as they must be by new entrants, have been accompanied by secular increases in entrants as a proportion of the labor force.[6] Two consequences of the postulated rise in entrants as a proportion of the labor force have been noted. First, it is argued that entrants are definitionally more likely to undergo a period of measured unemployment while conducting their job search than current labor force participants. Thus, it has been suggested that rising female LFPR's are responsible for secular increases in the unemployment rates of women relative to men.[7] Second, since entrants are likely to have less experience than current labor force participants, it has been claimed that the average level of experience of the female labor force must be declining. Thus rising female labor force participation rates are seen as contributing to a growing aggregate earnings gap between men and women.[8] However, for the most part, data have not been available to test directly whether entrants are indeed increasing as a proportion of the female labor force and whether, in fact, the average experience of the female labor force is declining.[9] As will be seen below, rising LFPR's have no necessary implications for the ratio between new entrants and the total labor force, nor for the average experience of labor force participants.

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[6] See, for example, Niemi (1974) and the Economic Report of the President, February 1974, p. 158.

[7] See Niemi (1974). For a critique of this argument see Ferber and Lowry (1976).

The purpose of this section is two-fold. First, we seek to clarify the simple algebraic relationships between entry and exit behavior and temporal changes in LFPR's. This exercise clearly demonstrates that underlying entry and exit rates must be measured directly and cannot be inferred from observed changes in LFPR's. Second, we present observations on the relationship of entry and exit behavior to changes in LFPR's for women in the NLS sample. These relationships are first examined longitudinally--as the cohort ages over time. Next, they are analyzed cross-sectionally--for women aged 35 to 44 at each survey date.

In evaluating our findings, it is important to bear in mind that they relate to a specific economic climate and a specific age group of women. Observations on exit and entry behavior over two time periods--1967 to 1969 and 1969 to 1971--are not sufficient to establish a trend--let alone a deviation from a trend due to labor market conditions. However, our findings do indicate that a variety of changes in underlying entry and exit behavior is compatible with observed changes in LFPR's. Moreover, they provide specific case studies of the underlying behavior of these parameters for groups experiencing increasing, decreasing, and stable LFPR's during the period.

The Algebraic Relationships

The relationship of LFPR's to flows of entries into and exits from the labor force may more easily be demonstrated if we introduce some simple terminology and notation. Let:

P = the size of the relevant population group.

L_t = the size of the group in the labor force at time t.

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[8] See the Economic Report of the President, February 1974, p. 158.

[9] For an important exception, see Mallan (1974). Utilizing data from the continuous work history sample maintained by the Social Security Administration for the period 1961 to 1971, Mallen found no evidence of such secular trends. See also Jusenius and Shortlidge (1975) for an analysis of entry and exit behavior utilizing the NLS data for this cohort.

O_t = $P-L_t$ = the size of the group out of the labor force at time t.

X_t = the number of "exiters" at time t, i.e., those in the labor force at time t-1 who have exited from the labor force by time t.

S_t = the number of "stayers" at time t, i.e., those in the labor force at time t-1 who have stayed in the labor force to time t.

E_t = the number of "entrants" at time t, i.e., those out of the labor force at time t-1 who have entered by time t.

L_t and O_t indicate the number of women in each labor force category at time t. X_t, S_t, and E_t represent the number of women at time t who satisfy the indicated requirements in terms of their comparative labor market status at time t and in the preceding period, time t-1. At any point in time, the labor force group is composed of stayers and entrants from the preceding period. The impact of exits from and entries into the labor force on changes in the size of the labor force over time may be expressed by the following relationship:

$$\Delta L_t = (L_t - L_{t-1}) = (E_t - X_t) \qquad (1)$$

Thus, if the number of entrants exceeds the number of exiters, the labor force will increase in size between the two periods. If the number of entrants is less than the number of exiters, the labor force will decrease in size. Finally, if E_t equals X_t, exits are exactly counterbalanced by entries and the size of the labor force will remain unchanged.

It is helpful to obtain a direct relationship among exits, entries and changes in the LFPR over time. To do this we simply express the relevant concepts as ratios to the size of the population (P).[10] Thus:

$$\Delta \text{LFPR}_t = \left(\frac{L_t}{P} - \frac{L_{t-1}}{P}\right) = \left(\frac{E_t}{P} - \frac{X_t}{P}\right) \qquad (2)$$

As equation (2) shows, the LFPR will increase if $\frac{E_t}{P}$ is greater than $\frac{X_t}{P}$; decrease if $\frac{E_t}{P}$ is smaller than $\frac{X_t}{P}$; and remain unchanged if $\frac{E_t}{P}$ is equal to

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[10] Throughout the subsequent analysis, we shall be analyzing the labor force behavior of population groups of constant size (P). This is because the sample has been restricted to respondents who were interviewed in the 1967, 1969, and 1971 surveys. However, it should be noted that, in a more general model, P might change over time due to mortality and international migration.

$\frac{X_t}{P}$. This is an extremely simple, but nonetheless an extremely crucial relationship. It demonstrates that information regarding temporal changes in the LFPR of a particular population group only provides information regarding the *relative* magnitude of entries and exits--i.e., expressed as proportions of the population. It gives *no* indication of the *absolute* magnitude of either.

Since the flow of entries into and exits from the labor force determine the changes in LFPR's over time, it is important to consider the parameters which govern the magnitude of these flows. Further, since we are also interested in the composition of the labor force--the proportion which stayers and entrants comprise of the total--it is also useful to consider the determinants of the size of the stayer group. Again, some terminology and notation will be useful in expressing these relationships.

Let:

$x_t = \frac{X_t}{L_{t-1}}$ = the "exit rate" or the proportion of those in the labor force at time t-1 who have exited from the labor force by time t.

$s_t = (1 - x_t = \frac{S_t}{L_{t-1}}$ = the "staying rate" or the proportion of those in the labor force at time t-1 who have stayed in the labor force to time t.

$e_t = \frac{E_t}{O_{t-1}}$ = the "entry rate" or the proportion of those out of the labor force at time t-1 who have entered the labor force by time t.

Exit, staying, and entry rates may be considered estimates of conditional probabilities. That is, given the labor force status of a woman in the preceding period, they estimate the probability that she will be in the specified group in the current period. For example, an exit rate of .15 implies that there is a 15 percent probability that a woman selected at random from the labor force group at time t-1 will have exited from the labor force by time t, and an 85 percent probability that she will have stayed to time t.

The relationship between exit and entry rates and the ratios of exiters, stayers and entrants to the population at time t are given below:

$$\frac{X_t}{P} = x_t \cdot \left(\frac{L_{t-1}}{P}\right) = x_t \cdot LFPR_{t-1} \qquad (3)$$

$$\frac{S_t}{P} = s_t \cdot \left(\frac{L_{t-1}}{P}\right) = (1 - x_t) \cdot LFPR_{t-1} \qquad (4)$$

$$\frac{E_t}{P} = e_t \cdot \left(\frac{O_{t-1}}{P}\right) = e_t \cdot (1 - LFPR_{t-1}) \qquad (5)$$

Thus, the magnitude of exiters, stayers, and entrants relative to the population depends not only on the relevant exit and entry rates, but also on the LFPR in the preceding period. Some examples may be helpful in illustrating the importance of this point.

First, let us contrast the situation of two population groups, both having the same exit and entry rates over a particular period, but one of which had a high and the other a low LFPR in t-1. The group for which $LFPR_{t-1}$ is high may exhibit little or even negative growth in its LFPR over the period, while the group for which $LFPR_{t-1}$ is low may exhibit a large increase. The reason is simply that for the high LFPR group the given exit rate generates a higher flow of exiters relative to population, while the given entry rate generates a lower flow of entrants relative to population.

A second example is provided by considering the change in LFPR's for a given population group over time. Let us assume that the LFPR of a given group is increasing over time and that entry and exit rates remain constant. As the proportion of the group that is in the labor force grows, the impact of a given exit rate is increased, while the impact of a given entry rate is reduced. Given constant exit and entry rates, the arithmetic increase in the LFPR will decline over successive periods, approaching zero in the limit. Thus, while the LFPR may continue to increase for a time even with constant entry and exit rates, if the arithmetic increase in LFPR's for a particular population group is maintained or increases over successive periods, then a secular change in entry rates and/or exit rates must have occurred. However, only the data can reveal the underlying pattern.

Finally, let us consider the case in which both LFPR's and entry rates for a particular population group are rising over time such that $\frac{E_t}{P} > \frac{E_{t-1}}{P}$, while the staying rate remains constant. Will new entrants comprise a higher proportion of the labor force at time t than at time t-1? Not necessarily. As the proportion of the group that is in the labor force grows over time, stayers will tend to rise as a proportion of the population, even with constant staying rates. The composition of the labor force will depend on which group--stayers or entrants--is increasing faster.

The Longitudinal Analysis

In this section we explore the relationship of changes in LFPR's in selected periods between 1967 and 1971 to flows of entries into and exits from the labor force. The LFPR's are available for three survey dates: 1967, 1969, and 1971. Entry and exit behavior may be observed over two periods: 1967 to 1969 and 1969 to 1971.[11]

Our findings for the cohort of women are presented in Table 2.5. We shall first consider the experience of the total cohort of white and black women, then of specific marital status categories within each race group. Between 1967 and 1971, there was an increase of 8 percentage points in the LFPR of white women, equally divided between the two subperiods: 1967 to 1969 and 1969 to 1971. The arithmetic increase in LFPR's over the two subperiods was maintained by a small decline in exit rates between 1969 and 1971--from 15 to 14 percent--and a larger increase in entry rates during the same period--from 20 to 22 percent. As a result, entrants and exiters relative to the population remained roughly constant.

The experience of black women over this period was quite different. There was a decline of 3 percentage points in their LFPR between 1967 and 1971, occurring in the latter part of the period. The importance of the base year LFPR in determining the impact of specific entry and exit rates may be illustrated by comparing the experience of black and white women between 1967 and 1969. During that period, the exit rate of black women, 14 percent, was slightly less than that of white women, while their entry rate, 29 percent, was considerably higher. Yet the black LFPR was stable in that period, while the white LFPR increased. This was due to the higher black LFPR in 1967--68 percent in comparison to 48 percent for whites. Thus the black exit rate was applied to a higher proportion of the population than in the case of whites, while the black entry rate was applied to a lower proportion of the population. The decline in the LFPR of black women which occurred between 1969 and 1971 was due to a 6 percentage point decline in the black entry rate--there was no increase in the average propensity of black women to exit from the labor force. The net result of the differing experiences of black and white women in the sample over the 1967 to 1971 period was a substantial decline in the racial differential in LFPR's--from 20 percentage points in 1967 to 10 percentage points in 1971.

In contrast to the average experience of the total group of whites, the increase in the LFPR of married, spouse present (MSP) women was somewhat greater during the 1969 to 1971 period than in the two preceding years. This escalation was associated with a small decline in exit rates and a

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[11] Again, note that for intertemporal comparisons, entry and exit rates must be examined for periods of equal length. Thus, an analysis of entries and exits between 1971 and 1972 is excluded.

Table 2.5 Entries, Exits, and Changes in Labor Force Participation Rates, 1967 to 1969 and 1969 to 1971, by Marital Status and Race[b]

All Respondents[a]

Item	WHITES				BLACKS			
	Total or average[c]	Married, spouse present[d]	Widowed, divorced, separated[d]	Never married[d]	Total or average[c]	Married, spouse present[d]	Widowed, divorced, separated[d]	Never married[d]
1 Total number of respondents	3,223	2,602	197	131	1,227	661	297	83
1967-1969								
2 LFPR in %, 1967	48	43	74	85	68	64	76	64
3 Exit rate in %(x), 1967-1969	15	16	6	5	14	17	7	11
4 Exiters in %(X/P), 1967-1969: (2)x(3)	7	7	4	4	10	11	6	7
5 1-LFPR in %, 1967	52	57	26	15	32	36	24	36
6 Entry rate in %(e), 1967-1969	20	19	30	25	29	31	25	10
7 Entrants in % (E/P),1967-1969:(5)x(6)	11	11	8	4	9	11	6	3
8 ΔLFPR in %, 1967-1969:(7)-(4)	4	4	4	0	-1	0	0	-4
1969-1971								
9 LFPR in %, 1969	51	46	78	84	68	64	77	61
10 Exit rate in %(x), 1969-1971	14	15	9	4	14	14	14	7
11 Exiters in %(X/P), 1969-1971:(9)x(10)	7	7	7	3	10	9	11	4
12 1-LFPR in %, 1969	49	54	22	16	32	36	23	39
13 Entry rate in %(e), 1969-1971	22	21	24	22	23	24	15	18
14 Entrants in %, 1969-1971:(12)x(13)	11	12	5	3	7	9	4	7
15 ΔLFPR in %, 1969-1971:(14)-(11)	4	5	-2	0	-3	0	-7	3
16 LFPR in %, 1971: (9)+(15)	55	51	76	84	65	64	70	64

a Respondents interviewed in 1967, 1969, and 1971 who were in the labor force in the respective year.

b Mathematical relationships may not hold precisely as indicated due to rounding error.

c Includes respondents reporting changes in marital status between 1967 and 1971.

d Respondents in indicated marital status category in each survey year: 1967, 1969, and 1971.

larger increase in entry rates--from 19 percent to 21 percent. Most probably this increase in entry rates was tied to a diminution in the household responsibilities of this group as their children aged.

Again within this marital status group we find sharp contrasts between the experience of black and white women. Among blacks the LFPR remained stable throughout the 1967 to 1971 period. However, this stability was the net result of fairly large changes in exit and entry behavior over the period. Between the 1967 to 1969 and the 1969 to 1971 periods, there was a sizable drop in exit rates--from 17 to 14 percent--but also a large drop in entry rates--from 31 to 24 percent. Thus the impact of a greater tendency of those in the labor force to remain was counterbalanced by a reduction in the propensity of those outside the labor force to enter. As a result of these differing trends the black-white differential in LFPR's shrank over the four-year period from 21 to 13 percentage points.

The greater financial necessity of market work on average among widowed, divorced and separated (WDS) white women in comparison to the MSP group is reflected in the higher LFPR's of the former in each survey year, as well as in their lower exit rates and higher entry rates. However, the two groups exhibited different trends in LFPR's over the period. Among WDS women, LFPR's increased between 1967 and 1969 but declined slightly between 1969 and 1971. As a result, the LFPR differential between white women in the two marital status categories declined from 31 percentage points in 1967 to 25 percentage points in 1971.

Within the group of WDS women in 1967, the black-white differential in LFPR's was considerably smaller than among MSP women. Additionally, among blacks, the LFPR differential between MSP and WDS women was considerably smaller in 1967 than among whites. Both the differentials by race and within the black group by marital status were substantially narrowed by a decline of 6 percentage points in the LFPR of the WDS group between 1967 and 1971. This decline was concentrated in the 1969 to 1971 period, and associated with both an increase in exit rates and a decrease in entry rates. As a result, by 1971 white women in the other ever-married category had a higher LFPR rate than their black counterparts.

Among whites, never-married women had the highest LFPR's of the marital status categories, as well as the lowest exit rates. As might be expected, their pattern of participation over the period was relatively stable. Within this group, the white LFPR was higher than the black, and blacks exhibited greater changes in exit and entry rates over the period, perhaps in part due to the higher proportion of black than of white women in this category with children.

In summary, we have found, among whites, considerable increases in LFPR's over the 1967 to 1971 period attributable largely to the MSP group. These increases were principally associated with rising entry rates over the period, although declining exit rates also played a role. Among WDS women the gain in LFPR's over the period was smaller due to an increase in the exit rate as well as a decline in the entry rate for this group. Among blacks, with the exception of the relatively small group of never-married women, a pattern of declining entry rates is sharply discernible. Exit rates declined substantially among MSP women, but increased among WDS women. The net result of these differential movements of exit rates in combination with declining entry rates was a stability in the LFPR's of MSP women, a substantial decline in the LFPR of WDS women, and a smaller decline in the LFPR of the total group.

Labor force composition and average experience We now turn to an examination of the impact of these patterns of changes in LFPR's on the proportions of the female labor force comprised of stayers and entrants, and on the average years of experience of labor force participants in each year.[12] These are in fact interrelated issues. Our findings regarding the past work patterns of labor force participants and nonparticipants in 1967 indicate that the latter group had considerably less labor market experience than the former. Thus, it is likely that new entrants will exert a downward pull on the average experience of the labor force group. However, there is one factor which tends to counterbalance this effect of entries on the average experience of labor force participants. It is the selectivity of both entry and exit behavior with respect to prior labor market experience.

This selectivity is illustrated in Table 2.6, which shows the average years of experience of women as of 1967 and 1969, classified by their labor market behavior over the periods 1967 to 1969 and 1969 to 1971, respectively. The data suggest that, within race/marital status categories, exiters on average had fewer years of experience than stayers, prior to the occurrence of the actual behavior; entrants on average had more years of experience than those who remained out of the labor force in both periods, again, prior to the occurrence of the actual behavior. The data also suggest, however, that exiters generally have more experience than entrants. Thus, while the selectivity of entry and exit behavior in terms of past experience dampens the negative impact of new entrants on the labor force group, it does not eliminate it.

It is interesting to note that, among blacks, the experience advantage of entrants relative to those who remained out in both periods increased from two years in 1967 to 1969 to three or four years in 1969 to 1971. This tendency for labor force entry to become even more selective with respect to prior labor market experience during this period coincides with

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[12] In this and the succeeding cross-sectional analysis, years of work experience in the post-1967 period are measured in a fashion comparable to the pre-1967 period. Thus, if a woman worked between 25 and 50 percent of the weeks elapsed in a two-year interval, she was credited with one year of work experience. If she worked between 51 and 100 percent of the weeks elapsed, she was credited with two years of work experience.

Table 2.6 Average Post-School Work Experience as of Base Year, by Marital Status, Comparative Labor Market Status and Race: 1967 to 1969, 1969 to 1971[a]
All Respondents[a]

Item	WHITES				BLACKS			
	Total or average[b]	Married, spouse present[c]	Widowed, divorced, separated[c]	Never married[c]	Total or average[b]	Married, spouse present[c]	Widowed, divorced, separated[c]	Never married[c]
Total number of respondents[e]	3,223	2,602	197	131	1,227	661	297	83
Comparative labor market status, 1967-1969								
Stayers								
S/P in %	41	36	70	81	59	53	70	57
Average experience as of 1967 (years)	12	11	13	16	14	14	14	16
Entrants								
E/P in %	11	11	8	4	9	11	6	3
Average experience as of 1967 (years)	7	7	d	d	8	8	d	d
Exiters								
X/P in %	7	7	4	4	10	11	6	7
Average experience as of 1967 (years)	9	9	d	d	12	12	d	d
Out[f]								
O/P in %	42	47	18	11	23	25	18	32
Average experience as of 1967 (years)	5	5	6	d	6	6	6	d
Comparative labor market status, 1969-1971								
Stayers								
S/P in %	44	39	71	81	58	55	66	57
Average experience as of 1969 (years)	13	13	15	18	15	15	16	18
Entrants								
E/P in %	11	12	5	3	7	9	4	7
Average experience as of 1969 (years)	7	7	d	d	10	11	d	d
Exiters								
X/P in %	7	7	7	3	10	9	11	4
Average experience as of 1969 (years)	12	11	d	d	12	11	14	d
Out[f]								
O/P in %	38	42	17	12	25	28	20	32
Average experience as of 1969 (years)	6	6	5	d	7	7	7	d

[a] Respondents interviewed in 1967, 1969, and 1971 who were in the labor force in the respective year.

[b] Includes respondents reporting changes in marital status between 1967 and 1971.

[c] Respondents in indicated marital status category in each survey year: 1967, 1969, and 1971.

[d] Means not reported where base is fewer than 25 sample cases.

[e] Includes respondents for whom responses on work experience were nonascertainable.

[f] Respondents out of the labor force at both survey dates.

a marked decline in entry rates among blacks and appears to be consistent with the possibility of a discouragement effect in response to the deteriorating economic climate.

The composition of the labor force in terms of stayers and entrants, and the average years of experience of each group and of the total labor force are shown in Table 2.7. In this case, average experience is shown subsequent to the occurrence of the indicated behavior. It may be noted that among those groups experiencing the largest increase in labor force participation rates over the period--the white total and MSP groups--stayers as a proportion of the labor force increased only slightly. In contrast, where declining entry rates prevailed--WDS white women and all black groups except the never-married--the proportion of stayers increased substantially. As a result, the white labor force in the total and MSP groups gained an average of only one year of labor market experience for every two chronological years, while the other groups generally gained an average of two years of labor market experience for every two chronological years. Since blacks and whites on average experienced differential patterns of entry behavior, the black advantage in average years of experience increased from one year in 1967 to three years in 1971.[13]

The Cross-Sectional Analysis

In this section we are concerned with the relationship of entries into and exits from the labor force to changes in age-specific LFPR's. We have termed this the cross-sectional analysis because we are dealing with different, although overlapping, population groups in each survey year, rather than with a fixed population group as in the preceding longitudinal analysis. We hold the effect of age constant by restricting the sample in each survey year to women aged 35 to 44. Similarly, marital status, like age, is defined with respect to survey year status. The purpose of this procedure is to obtain age-specific LFPR's by marital status for each survey year which are comparable to those which would be obtained from cross-sectional data. We then utilize the longitudinal nature of the NIS data to examine the prior labor market status and participation rates of women in each cross-sectional group--thus adding a longitudinal dimension to the analysis.

The strictly longitudinal analysis presented in the preceding section illustrated the difficulty in drawing inferences about entry and exit

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[13] The observed differences in the average years of work experience of labor force participants between 1967 and 1969, and between 1969 and 1971 were found to be statistically significant at the 5 percent level for the total black and white groups, and for each marital status category except white never-married women (1967 to 1969), black WDS women (1967 to 1969), and black never-married women (1967 to 1969 and 1969 to 1971).

Table 2.7 Average Post-School Work Experience in the Labor Force, by Race, Marital Status, and Comparative Labor Market Status: 1967 to 1969, 1969 to 1971[a]
All Respondents[a]

Item	WHITES				BLACKS			
	Total or average[b]	Married, spouse present[c]	Widowed, divorced, separated[c]	Never married[c]	Total or average[b]	Married, spouse present[c]	Widowed, divorced, separated[c]	Never married[c]
1967 Labor force								
Total number of respondents[e]	1,531	1,115	142	111	816	419	215	53
Average experience as of 1967 (years)	12	11	13	16	13	13	14	15
1969 Labor force								
Total number of respondents[e]	1,654	1,210	150	111	816	422	216	49
Average experience as of 1969 (years)	13	12	15	18	15	15	15	17
Comparative labor market status, 1967-1969								
Stayers								
S/L in %	79	77	90	96	86	83	92	94
Average experience as of 1969 (years)	14	13	15	18	16	16	16	18
Entrants								
E/L in %	21	23	10	4	14	18	8	6
Average experience as of 1969 (years)	8	8	d	d	9	9	d	d
1971 Labor force								
Total number of respondents[e]	1,770	1,322	147	109	776	410	197	52
Average experience as of 1971 (years)	14	13	17	20	17	17	17	20
Comparative labor market status, 1969-1971								
Stayers								
S/L in %	80	77	93	96	89	87	95	89
Average experience as of 1971 (years)	15	15	17	20	17	17	18	20
Entrants								
E/L in %	20	23	7	4	11	14	5	11
Average experience as of 1971 (years)	9	9	d	d	12	12	d	d

[a] Respondents interviewed in 1967, 1969, and 1971 who were in the labor force in the respective year.

[b] Includes respondents reporting changes in marital status between 1967 and 1971.

[c] Respondents in indicated marital status category in each survey year: 1967, 1969, and 1971.

[d] Means not reported where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

[e] Includes respondents for whom responses on work experience were nonascertainable.

behavior from observed changes in the LFPR's of a specific population group. Such a procedure is even more hazardous in the case of age-specific LFPR's, since an additional problem is introduced, i.e., the longitudinal changes in LFPR's may diverge from the cross-sectional changes, and it is the longitudinal changes that are relevant to an examination of entry and exit behavior.

Our findings regarding the relationship between exit and entry behavior and observed cross-sectional changes in LFPR's are shown in Table 2.8. The cross-sectional LFPR's for each race and marital status group are shown in the boxes in rows 2, 9, and 16. The cross-sectional changes in LFPR's during the 1967 to 1969 and 1969 to 1971 periods are shown in parentheses in rows 8 and 15--the longitudinal changes are shown without parentheses.

Over the 1967 to 1971 period, whites experienced increases in age-specific (cross-sectional) LFPR's in all marital status categories, the largest increases occurring among the MSP group. In contrast, blacks experienced decreases in age-specific (cross-sectional) LFPR's in all marital status categories, the largest declines occurring among WDS women and the small group of never-married women.

Among whites, there was a tendency for exit rates to rise over the period for all marital status groups except the never married. The most pronounced increase occurred among WDS women. Among blacks, exit rates remained constant, on average. In contrast to the experience of white women, exit rates declined among black women in the MSP category. However, as was the case among white women, there was a sharp increase in exit rates among black women in the WDS category.

As we found in the longitudinal analysis, white women, on average, experienced increases in entry rates which were largest among women in the MSP category. On the other hand, we again find a pronounced tendency for entry rates to decline among blacks for all marital status groups except the never-married.

The effect of these changes in entry and exit rates depends upon the base level participation rates for each population group. The net effects are summarized in Table 2.9. Entrants rose as a proportion of the population on average for the total white group, and within each marital status category, except among WDS women. Among black women, entrants declined as a proportion of the population on average for the total group, and also for each marital status category, with the exception of never-married women. Stayers declined as a proportion of the population only among black WDS women and the small number of black never-married women.

Labor force composition and average experience Table 2.9 also shows the prior work experience of women by their comparative labor market status in the two periods, 1967 to 1969 and 1969 to 1971. As in

Table 2.8 Entries, Exits, and Changes in Labor Force Participation Rates, by Marital Status and Race: 1967 to 1969, 1969 to 1971[a,b,c]

Respondents 35 to 44 at Each Survey Date[c]

Item	WHITES											
	Total or average			Married spouse present			Widowed, divorced, separated			Never married		
	1967	1969	1971	1967	1969	1971	1967	1969	1971	1967	1969	1971
1 Total number of respondents	2,190	2,114	2,074	1,908	1,789	1,760	194	228	216	88	97	98
2 LFPR in %, 1967	$\boxed{49}$	49		$\boxed{46}$	45		$\boxed{68}$	61		$\boxed{84}$	86	
3 Exit rate in % (x), 1967-1969		14			16			7			6	
4 Exiters in % (X/P), 1967-1969:(2)x(3)		7			7			4			5	
5 1-LFPR in %, 1969		51			55			39			14	
6 Entry rate in % (e), 1967-1969		21			20			33			31	
7 Entrants in % (E/P), 1967-1969:(5)x(6)		11			11			13			4	
8 ΔLFPR in %, 1967-1969:(7)-(4)		4(4)			4(3)			9(2)			-1(1)	
9 LFPR in %, 1969		$\boxed{53}$	51		$\boxed{49}$	47		$\boxed{70}$	73		$\boxed{85}$	85
10 Exit rate in % (x), 1969-1971			15			17			13			2
11 Exiters in % (X/P), 1969-1971:(9)x(10)			8			8			10			2
12 1-LFPR in %, 1971			49			53			27			15
13 Entry rate in % (e), 1969-1971			25			24			36			30
14 Entrants in % (E/P), 1969-1971:(12)x(13)			12			13			10			5
15 ΔLFPR in %, 1969-1971:(14)-(11)			4(3)			5(3)			0(3)			3(3)
16 LFPR in %, 1971:(9)+(13)			$\boxed{56}$			$\boxed{52}$			$\boxed{73}$			$\boxed{88}$

Table continued on next page.

Table 2.8 continued.

Item	BLACKS											
	Total or average			Married, spouse present			Widowed, divorced, separated			Never married		
	1967	1969	1971	1967	1969	1971	1967	1969	1971	1967	1969	1971
1 Total number of respondents	844	809	795	556	506	472	240	257	274	48	46	49
2 LFPR in %, 1967	$\boxed{70}$	69		$\boxed{67}$	65		$\boxed{79}$	76		$\boxed{72}$	70	
3 Exit rate in % (x), 1967-1969		14			17			9			6	
4 Exiters in % (X/P), 1967-1969:(2)x(3)		10			11			7			4	
5 1-LFPR in %, 1969		31			35			24			30	
6 Entry rate in % (e), 1967-1969		32			36			27			7	
7 Entrants in % (E/P), 1967-1969:(5)x(6)		10			13			6			2	
8 ΔLFPR in %, 1967-1969:(7)-(4)		0(-1)			1(-1)			0(-3)			-1(-3)	
9 LFPR in %, 1969		$\boxed{69}$	69		$\boxed{66}$	66		$\boxed{76}$	77		$\boxed{69}$	55
10 Exit rate in % (x), 1969-1971			14			15			14			6
11 Exiters in % (X/P), 1969-1971:(9)x(10)			10			10			11			4
12 1-LFPR in %, 1971			31			34			23			45
13 Entry rate in % (e), 1969-1971			22			25			17			17
14 Entrants in % (E/P), 1969-1971:(12)x(13)			7			8			4			7
15 ΔLFPR in %, 1969-1971:(14)-(11)			-3(-3)			-1(-1)			-7(-6)			4(-10)
16 LFPR in %, 1971:(9)+(13)			$\boxed{66}$			$\boxed{65}$			$\boxed{70}$			$\boxed{59}$

a Respondents interviewed in 1967, 1969, and 1971.

b Mathematical relationships may not hold precisely as indicated due to rounding error.

c Respondents aged 35 to 44 in each survey date. See supra, p. 2.39 for a further explanation of the cross-sectional analysis.

Table 2.9 Average Post-School Experience as of Base Year, by Marital Status, Comparative Labor Market Status and Race: 1967 to 1969, 1969 to 1971[a]
Respondents 35 to 44 at Each Survey Date[e]

Item	WHITES				BLACKS			
	Total or average	Married, spouse present	Widowed, divorced, separated	Never married	Total or average	Married, spouse present	Widowed, divorced, separated	Never married
Comparative labor market status, 1967-1969								
Total number of respondents[b]	2,114	1,789	228	97	809	506	257	46
Stayers								
S/P in %	42	38	57	81	59	54	69	67
Average experience as of 1967 (years)	12	12	12	17	14	14	13	c
Entrants								
E/P in %	11	11	13	4	10	13	6	2
Average experience as of 1967 (years)	7	7	8	c	8	8	c	c
Exiters								
X/P in %	7	7	4	5	10	11	7	4
Average experience as of 1967 (years)	10	9	c	c	12	12	c	c
Out[d]								
O/P in %	40	44	26	10	21	23	18	28
Average experience as of 1967 (years)	6	6	6	c	7	7	7	c
Comparative labor market status, 1969-1971								
Total number of respondents[b]	2,074	1,760	216	98	795	472	274	49
Stayers								
S/P in %	43	39	63	83	59	56	66	51
Average experience as of 1969 (years)	12	12	13	17	14	14	13	c
Entrants								
E/P in %	12	13	10	5	7	8	4	7
Average experience as of 1969 (years)	7	6	c	c	11	10	c	c
Exiters								
X/P in %	8	8	10	2	10	10	11	4
Average experience as of 1969 (years)	11	11	c	c	11	11	c	c
Out[d]								
O/P in %	37	41	18	11	24	26	19	38
Average experience as of 1969 (years)	6	6	6	c	6	7	6	c

[a] Respondents interviewed in 1967, 1969, and 1971.

[b] Includes respondents for whom responses or work experience were nonascertainable.

[c] Means not reported where base is fewer than 25 sample cases.

[d] Respondents out of the labor force on both survey dates.

[e] Respondents aged 35 to 44 in each survey date. See supra, p. 2.39 for a further explanation of the cross-sectional analysis.

the longitudinal analysis, there is a tendency for exiters to have fewer years of prior work experience than stayers. For the most part, we also find that entrants tend on average to have more work experience than those who remain out of the labor force in both survey dates. However, white MSP women who entered the labor force between 1967 and 1969 had the same average prior experience as those who remained out of the labor force.

Among whites, we again find that exiters generally had greater average years of experience than entrants. Thus, despite the selectivity of exit and entry behavior with respect to prior experience, the two groups were not identical with respect to previous work experience. Among black women, this pattern prevails in the 1967 to 1969 period. However, in the 1969 to 1971 period, entrants and exiters have approximately the same average prior labor market experience. It appears that, for blacks, declining entry rates between 1969 and 1971 were associated with an even greater selectivity of entry behavior with respect to prior labor market experience.[14] As noted earlier in the case of the longitudinal analysis, this finding is consistent with the possibility of a discouragement phenomenon occurring among blacks. That is, with rising unemployment, those with less labor market experience may have been deterred from seeking employment, or may have briefly entered and withdrawn from the labor force between the two dates after a fruitless search.

The net effect of the trends in entry and exit rates on the composition and average experience of the labor force is shown in Table 2.10. Among the groups experiencing the largest increase in LFPR's--the white total and MSP groups--stayers declined only slightly as a proportion of the labor force. Among white WDS women and among blacks on average and in the ever-married categories, stayers rose as a proportion of the labor force.

The average years of experience of the total white and black labor force groups remained unchanged between 1967 and 1971, with black women having, on average, two more years of work experience than white women. Within race and marital status categories there were some fluctuations in average years of experience, however, never in excess of one year.[15]

Thus, over the four-year period 1967 to 1971, it does not appear that there was any marked change in the composition of the female labor

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[14] In this regard, it is interesting to note that, although age is held constant in Table 2.9, black entrants have two to three years more experience in 1969 than in 1967.

[15] A pairwise test of the differences in the mean years of work experience of labor force participants was conducted within each race and marital status category for 1967 and 1969, 1969 and 1971, 1967 and 1971. None of the differences were statistically significant at the 5 percent level.

Table 2.10 Average Post-School Experience of Respondents in the Labor Force, by Marital Status, Comparative Labor Market Status and Race: 1967 to 1969, 1969 to 1971[a]
Respondents 35 to 44 at Each Survey Date[d]

Item	WHITES				BLACKS			
	Total or average	Married, spouse present	Widowed, divorced, separated	Never married	Total or average	Married, spouse present	Widowed, divorced, separated	Never married
1967-1969								
1967 Labor force								
Total number of respondents[b]	1,080	875	131	74	578	363	182	33
Average experience as of 1967 (years)	13	12	14	18	15	15	16	19
1969 Labor force								
Total number of respondents[b]	1,122	882	157	83	548	328	190	30
Average experience as of 1969 (years)	13	13	13	19	15	15	15	c
Comparative labor market status, 1967-1969								
Stayers								
S/L in %	79	78	82	95	85	81	92	97
Average experience as of 1969 (years)	14	14	14	19	16	16	15	c
Entrants								
E/L in %	21	23	18	5	15	19	9	3
Average experience as of 1969 (years)	8	8	9	c	9	9	c	c
1969-1971								
1971 Labor force								
Total number of respondents[b]	1,148	908	156	84	509	298	181	30
Average experience as of 1971 (years)	13	12	14	19	15	15	15	c
Comparative labor market status, 1969-1971								
Stayers								
S/L in %	78	75	87	95	90	87	94	87
Average experience as of 1971 (years)	14	14	14	19	16	16	15	c
Entrants								
E/L in %	22	25	13	5	10	13	6	13
Average experience as of 1971 (years)	8	8	c	c	2	12	c	c

[a] Respondents interviewed in 1967, 1969, and 1971.
[b] Includes respondents for whom responses on work experience were nonascertainable.
[c] Means not reported where base is fewer than 25 sample cases.
[d] Respondents aged 35 to 44 in each survey date. See supra, p. 2.39 for a further explanation of the cross-sectional analysis.

force in the 35- to 44-year age group with respect to the proportions comprised of stayers and entrants, nor in the average level of experience of labor market participants. This was the case even among the total group of white women and those in the MSP category, despite sizable cross-sectional and longitudinal gains in their LFPR's over the period.

III CONCLUSION

In this chapter we have focused upon the longitudinal patterns of involvement in market work among women in their late thirties and forties. The first section was devoted to a summary and analysis of the retrospectively collected work histories of women in the sample during the years between school completion and 1967. The second section was concerned with the relationship of the entry and exit behavior of respondents during the 1967 to 1969 and 1969 to 1971 periods to observed trends in labor force participation rates over those periods.

A major finding of this investigation is that the labor force status of women observed at a point in time--the primary focus of analyses utilizing cross-sectional data--is strongly related to the intensity of their prior work experience. This relationship was manifested over a number of dimensions. First, it was found that observed cross-sectional differences in labor force participation rates of women by marital status, presence of children, and race were also reflected in differing degrees of work experience among these groups during the period prior to the 1967 survey. Second, it was found that, within race and marital status/child categories, labor force participants differed markedly from nonparticipants in the extent of their prior work experience. On average, the group in the labor force at a point in time--in this case the 1967 interview date--had worked a substantially larger proportion of the years prior to that time. This consistency in labor force status over time was also manifested across intervals in the women's lives. Among ever-married women with children (the majority of respondents) where this issue was investigated, it was shown that their work status in one interval of their lives, e.g., between school completion and marriage, was associated with their work status during a subsequent interval, e.g., between marriage and the birth or acquisition of their first child.

Previous work experience was also found to be related to the comparative labor market status of respondents between two points in time. For the two two-year periods, 1967 to 1969 and 1969 to 1971, it was found that exiters from the labor force generally had less prior work experience than stayers, and entrants to the labor force generally had more prior work experience than those who remained out of the labor force on both survey dates.

While in some respects our examination of longitudinal data on labor force participation supported inferences that might reasonably be made from cross-sectional data, in other respects our findings suggest that such inferences can be misleading. In particular, we have demonstrated that entry and exit rates must be measured directly, and cannot be deduced from observed trends in labor force participation rates. Similarly, it was shown that the trends in labor force participation rates for particular population groups bear no necessary relationship to the proportions of the labor force comprised of stayers and new entrants, or to the average experience of labor force participants. In the longitudinal analysis, where the effect of the aging of the cohort was not removed, all race and marital status groups gained in average experience over the four-year period. In the cross-sectional analysis, where the effect of age was held constant and the focus was upon the 35- to 44-year-old group in each survey period, there was no change in the average experience of any of the race and marital status groups over the four-year period.

Our investigation of the comparative labor force status of respondents during the 1967 to 1969 and 1969 to 1971 periods yielded an additional finding of considerable importance. For the most part, the entry rates of black women in all marital status categories (except the never-married) declined substantially between the two periods. In light of the decline in the level of economic activity which also occurred during this time, the possibility of a discouragement effect is consistent with these findings and further investigation of this possible relationship appears to be warranted.

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CHAPTER III

FACTORS IN CAREER ORIENTATION AND OCCUPATIONAL STATUS

by

Herbert S. Parnes and Gilbert Nestel*

It is symptomatic of the historical social role of women and of their position in the labor market that studies of career patterns, occupational status, and occupational mobility have tended to focus on men rather than women.[1] Studies of these topics have frequently stemmed from an interest in social stratification, and the socioeconomic status of a family has generally been perceived to flow from the position of the husband rather than from that of the wife.[2] Thus, the classic study of The American Occupational Structure by Blau and Duncan was concerned exclusively with men.[3] In his volume on The Psychology of Careers Donald Super pointed out that women's careers had not been systematically studied as had men's, and although he offered a classification system, it had no empirical content.[4] Most of the work that has subsequently been done on career patterns of women has either defined careers solely in terms of extent of work activity without reference to occupation, or has focused on relatively small and homogeneous samples of women--principally those with college educations.[5]

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[1] See Psatha (1968), p. 267. A very recent exception is a study which utilizes the NLS data base to compare the process of status attainment for women and men. See Treiman and Terrell (1975).

[2] However, for a demonstration that family socioeconomic status is inadequately measured by husband's characteristics alone, see Haug (1973), pp. 86-98.

[3] Blau and Duncan (1967).

[4] Super (1957), pp. 76-79.

[5] As examples of the former, see Vetter and Stockburger (1974) and Mulvey (1963). For examples of studies utilizing an occupational dimension, albeit with restricted samples of highly educated women, see Stone and Athelstan (1969) and Harmon (1970). For an early study of occupational attachment patterns that included both women and men (although with greater emphasis on the latter) see University of Pennsylvania Industrial Research Department (1953).

In view of the increasing labor force participation of women, as well as their entrance into fields of activity formerly reserved almost exclusively for men, it is important to know more than we currently do about the patterns of occupational stability and occupational change that characterize their work lives and about the factors that are related to their occupational status. This chapter addresses itself to some of these issues by examining several aspects of the work experience of the women from the time they left school until the time of the 1972 interview. Specifically, the study has two major objectives. The first is to ascertain the correlates of a "career status" among women as evidenced by the pursuit of a single occupation or group of related occupations during a substantial portion of their working lives. The second is to identify the determinants of occupational status at several points in their work lives: (1) upon leaving school, (2) at the time the National Longitudinal Surveys began in 1967, and (3) at the time of the 1972 survey. The following section relates to the factors in career orientation. Section II explores the determinants of occupational status. In the final section the major findings of the study are summarized.

I FACTORS IN CAREER ORIENTATION

The term "career" has been used in at least two different senses. In one of these it means substantially the same thing as an individual's total work history. From this point of view, one may speak of a stable or an unstable career depending upon the extent of the individual's attachment to the labor market and/or the consistency of occupational assignment.[6] In another sense the term may be used to refer to a particular type of work history--i.e., one in which there has been substantial attachment to the labor force and in which there has been a rather firm commitment to a given occupation or type of work, or at least a rather orderly progression up an occupational hierarchy.[7] It is in this sense that the term "career" is used in the present study.

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[6] See Form and Miller (1948).

[7] See University of Pennsylvania Industrial Research Department (1953), pp. 11-16. See also, Robert Dubin (1958), p. 276, who says, "An occupational career is the succession of related jobs filled by an individual. The jobs are held in an ordered series, and there is some kind of real relationship among them. Some individuals start in a line of activity which carries on for the rest of their lives . . . There is a great deal of difference between work and a career. Work is the acceptance of employment with the primary objective of securing the income it provides. Each job is viewed as an isolated interval in the process of earning an income. The entrance on a career carries with it a whole series of future expectations extending through the effective lifetime of the individual."

Criteria of Career Orientation

Since the degree of stability manifested by women's work histories constitutes a continuum, their dichotomization into those that represent "careers" and those that do not is necessarily somewhat arbitrary. Our criteria for a career status involve two facets of previous work experience: (1) extent of employment experience and (2) pattern of occupational assignment. To qualify as having a "career," a woman first must have worked for six months or more in at least three-fourths of the years that elapsed between leaving school and 1967, and must also have been employed in at least three-fourths of the weeks between the 1967 and the 1972 interviews.[8] Second, a "career" woman must have been in the same three-digit occupational category or in related categories during all jobs for which information was collected in the several surveys.[9] In deciding whether a given pattern of occupational assignments constituted a career, consideration was given not only to the occupational titles themselves, but to the amounts of time served in each and to the recency of the assignment.[10]

On the basis of these criteria, 11 percent of women in the age category under consideration had established careers as of 1972--10 percent of the whites and 14 percent of the blacks (Appendix Table 3A-1). The proportion who met the time criteria but not the occupational criterion was 17 percent--15 percent of the white women and somewhat over a fourth of their black counterparts. Of the women who were employed in 1972, professional and clerical workers were the most likely to have pursued careers; seven out of ten "career" women were in these two occupational categories as compared with almost half of all employed women (Appendix Table 3A-2).

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[8] A smaller number of weeks (viz., 135) has been required for women who were school teachers at the time of the 1967 survey. The reason is that school teachers frequently report the summer vacation period as weeks out of the labor force.

[9] For never-married women with no children, these are the first job after leaving school at which the woman worked six months or longer, the longest job she ever held, and the job she held in each survey week in which she was employed. For ever-married women with no children, the relevant jobs are the following: longest job between school and first marriage; longest job between first marriage and 1967; and jobs held in the survey weeks in which the woman was employed. For ever-married women with children, the relevant jobs are the longest between school and marriage; the longest between marriage and first child; the longest between first child and 1967; and those held in the survey weeks in which the woman was employed. Never-married women with children are represented by only a handful of sample cases, and have been eliminated from the analysis.

[10] A description of the guidelines and coding procedure used to differentiate between "career" and "noncareer" women, as well as some illustrative cases, are presented in the Appendix to this chapter.

Significance of "Career"

From the foregoing description of the criteria that have been used and from the illustrations shown in the Appendix to the chapter, it will be evident that having had a "career" is not necessarily a rewarding and self-fulfilling experience for a woman. Women may work continuously as the result of financial need as well as personal choice; moreover, so far as consistency of occupational assignment is concerned, a woman can be "trapped" in a career as well as having freely and consciously pursued it. In interpreting our findings it must be borne in mind that the black woman with five years of education who has spent all her life as a domestic servant is as much a "career" woman in the context of this study as the white college graduate who has moved up the ranks from reporter to editor on a metropolitan daily newspaper.

Method of Analysis

In a retrospective analysis of career orientations of women there are many variables for which the direction of causation is by no means clear. For example, if educational attainment is shown to be positively related to the likelihood of a woman's having had a career, this may mean that education stimulates as well as facilitates the pursuit of a career; however, it may mean merely that a prior career aspiration induces a woman to pursue additional education. Similarly, if a favorable attitude on the part of a woman's husband toward her labor market activity is found to be related to the likelihood of her having pursued a career, this may indicate only that her desire for a career led her to select a husband with compatible attitudes. Thus, we make no pretense of presenting a causal model. Rather, on a largely intuitive basis we have sought to identify the characteristics of a woman that are correlated with the likelihood of her having pursued a career as that term has been defined above.

Since we are interested in the net relationship between each explanatory variable and the likelihood of career orientation, we use a multivariate method of analysis--specifically, multiple classification analysis (MCA).[11] This technique allows us to calculate for each category of a particular explanatory variable what the proportion of career women would have been had the members of the category been "average" in terms of all other variables included in the analysis. Differences in these "adjusted" proportions among the various categories of a given variable may be interpreted as indicating the "pure" association of that variable with the likelihood of a career orientation. The dependent variable is dichotomous, with a value of 1 for career orientation and a value of 0 otherwise.[12]

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[11] Multiple classification analysis is identical to the more commonly used multiple regression analysis with all of the explanatory variables expressed in categorical form, which avoids the assumption of linearity. The constant term in the multiple classification equation is the mean of the dependent variable. The coefficient of each category of every explanatory variable represents a deviation from this mean.

In this section of the chapter we focus exclusively on married women who have borne children, for it is among them that alternatives to a labor market career are most likely to exist. Moreover, it has been necessary to confine the analysis further to women who have been married only once and who were living with their husbands at the time of the 1967 interview. The reason is that the characteristics of the women's husbands comprise an important set of explanatory variables, and our measures of these characteristics relate to the man to whom the respondent was married in 1967.

MCA Results: Career Status

The MCA results are shown in Tables 3.1 to 3.4.[13] It should be clearly understood that these four tables are presenting the results of only one MCA. The explanatory variables have been classified into four categories and have been presented in four separate tables for convenience, but they have all been entered in the same MCA. Thus, the adjusted proportions for each variable reflect the effects of all of the other variables shown in all four tables. Only 7 percent of the married women who had ever borne (or adopted) children qualify as "career" women. Controlling for other factors, there is no difference in this proportion either by race or by age (Table 3.1).

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[12] Because we were interested in knowing whether the additional criterion of occupational consistency makes the explanation of career orientation any different from what it would be if based solely on the criterion of continuity of employment ("strong attachment" to labor market), we ran the same MCA with the dependent variable based only on extent of employment experience ("1" if 75 percent work attachment, "0" otherwise). The results were basically similar in pattern to those for career orientation. Also, in order to ascertain whether our explanatory variables are related to consistency of occupational assignment for women who have strong attachment to the labor market, we also ran an MCA using a dichotomous variable where a respondent was coded "1" if she met the occupational criterion for career status and "0" otherwise. The universe was confined to women who met the employment experience criterion. On the basis of an F-test, this MCA did not yield a significant fit.

[13] We originally stratified the MCA by race. The results of a Chow test indicated no significant differences between blacks and whites in the slopes of the explanatory variables. Accordingly, only the pooled results are presented, with race included as an explanatory variable.

Family background factors (Table 3.1) Among the family background factors whose relationship to career status we have examined,[14] only location of residence and work status of mother when respondents were teenagers bear a substantial relationship to the likelihood of a career orientation. Women who in their teens had working mothers were more likely to develop careers than those whose mothers had not worked, which suggests the importance of role models in the formative years. The relationship is particularly strong among those women who were living only with their mothers, although it is discernible also among those with both parents in the household. There is an inverse relationship between size of community and likelihood of career status. Women who at age 15 lived in rural areas were twice as likely as those in large cities to pursue careers. The reason for this relationship is not entirely clear, but may reflect a stronger work ethic among the population in rural areas and small towns.[15]

Educational and training characteristics as of 1967 (Table 3.2) There is a fairly regular positive association between educational attainment and the likelihood of a career, similar to that which has been documented in the case of current labor force participation.[16] There are also differences according to college curriculum: graduates of liberal arts programs are less likely to pursue careers than those with degrees in education; graduates of other professional programs have the highest career rates.

Other things equal, career women are considerably more likely than noncareer women to have had concentrated programs of training outside the regular school system. However, for training to make a difference in this regard it must have been of reasonably long duration. There is little or no difference in career rates between those with no training, those with training under one year in duration, and those whose training was in two or more programs. However, among women with training in a single program that lasted at least a year, the career rate is twice as high as for other

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[14] Nationality and Census region of birth were included in earlier MCA runs, but showed no systematic relationship with likelihood of a career.

[15] The explanation is unlikely to lie in their pattern of activity while residing in rural areas, since labor force participation rates for married women are lower in rural than in urban areas. See Bowen and Finegan (1969), p. 204.

[16] Bowen and Finegan (1969), p. 117.

Table 3.1 Unadjusted and Adjusted[a] Proportions of Married[b] Career Women, by Race, Age and Selected Aspects of Family Background

MCA results (F-ratios in parentheses)

Characteristic	Number of respondents	Unadjusted percent	Adjusted percent
Total or average (4.90**)	2,164	6.6	6.6
$\bar{R}^2 = 0.080$			
Age (0.09)			
35-39	687	5.5	6.3
40-44	708	7.0	6.7
45-49	769	7.2	6.8
Race (0.02)			
Whites	1,735	6.5	6.6
Blacks	429	8.6	6.4
Family structure at age 15 (3.03**)			
Respondent lived with father and mother			
Mother worked	487	9.8	9.8
Mother did not work	1,119	5.8	5.6
Respondent lived with mother only			
Mother worked	153	8.1	8.1
Mother did not work	65	0.9	1.9
Other	310	5.8	6.8
NA	30	1.7	1.4
Nature of residence at age 15[c] (4.84**)			
Rural	720	9.5	9.5
Town or small city	665	6.5	6.3
Large city or suburb	774	4.6	4.8
Education of father (1.56)[d]			
Under 12 years	1,242	7.2	7.0
12 or more years	443	5.4	5.0
NA or DK	479	6.3	7.3

** Significant at $\alpha \leq .01$.

[a] Percentages are adjusted for the effects of all the explanatory variables shown in Tables 3.1 to 3.4.

[b] Women married only once (currently living with their husbands) who have had children.

[c] A small number of cases for which information on the variable was not ascertained were included in the analysis but are not reported.

[d] Or head of household if respondent did not live with father at age 15.

Table 3.2 Unadjusted and Adjusted[a] Proportions of Married[b] Career Women, by Educational and Training Characteristics

MCA results (F-ratios in parentheses)

Characteristic	Number of respondents	Unadjusted percent	Adjusted percent
Years and type of schooling (3.42**)			
0-8	310	5.9	4.7
9-11	437	4.2	4.1
12, vocational, commercial	534	6.2	7.0
12, other	493	5.7	5.9
13-15	199	7.2	8.0
16+, liberal arts	55	9.6	9.5
16+, education	75	17.2	12.1
16+, other	61	17.2	16.6
Training[c] (4.30**)			
None	1,423	6.2	6.1
One program			
Under 1 year	474	6.1	6.2
1 or more years	127	13.4	13.4
Two or more programs	121	4.8	4.6
Certification for trade or profession[c] (6.81**)			
Yes	318	14.6	10.9
No	1,841	5.2	5.9

** Significant at $\alpha \leq .01$.

[a] Percentages are adjusted for the effects of all the explanatory variables shown in Tables 3.1 to 3.4.

[b] Women married only once (currently living with their husbands) who have had children.

[c] A small number of cases for which information on the variable was not ascertained were included in the analysis but are not reported.

women. Possession of a certificate to practice a trade or profession also increases substantially the probability of career status.

Health condition and attitude toward market work as of 1967 (Table 3.3) We had expected that women with health problems affecting work--especially those of long duration--would be less likely to have established careers than those without such limitations. However, the career rates for the several health categories shown in Table 3.3 are too irregular to provide support for this hypothesis. We also hypothesized that careers would be more prevalent among women with "liberated" views on the propriety of labor market activity by mothers. This relationship does appear to prevail: career rates vary monotonically according to the degree to which the woman expresses favorable attitudes toward working mothers. Needless to say, given that the women's attitudes were measured as of 1967, we do not know whether they have determined, or are merely reflective of, the work histories.

Marital and family characteristics as of 1967 (Table 3.4) In the light of their roles as wives and mothers, one expects the extent and character of women's labor market activity to vary according to a number of marital and family characteristics. Not surprisingly, single women and chidless married women are more likely to have careers than the group under consideration here: the respective proportions are approximately one-half, one-third, and 7 percent. But even among married women with children, career status may be expected to vary according to such factors as the number and spacing of the children a woman has borne, the earning capacity of her husband, and the husband's attitude toward his wife's working. These kinds of relationships are shown in Table 3.4.

Career rates among women with only one child are well over twice as high as among those with three or more children. Moreover, among those with more than one child, career rates appear to rise as the average number of years between children increases. The possibility of using siblings as baby sitters may account for this relationship.

Other things being equal, the extent of a woman's labor market activity should be inversely related to her husband's income. Although we have no direct measure of husband's income over the period of his marriage to the respondent, a good proxy is his educational attainment. While career rates do appear to be inversely related to level of education of husband, the relationship does not achieve statistical significance. The expected relationship between husband's health and the likelihood that his wife will have a career is clearly discernible in the data. Women whose husbands have health conditions affecting their work are almost half again as likely as other women to have had careers.

Of all the marital and family characteristics that have been investigated, the one that bears the most pronounced relationship with career status is the respondent's perception of her husband's attitude toward her working in the labor market. Career status declines monotonically as husband's attitude becomes less favorable, and is only

Table 3.3 . Unadjusted and Adjusted[a] Proportions of Married[b] Career Women, by Health Condition and Attitude toward Market Work

MCA results (F-ratios in parentheses)

Characteristic	Number of respondents	Unadjusted percent	Adjusted percent
Health condition and duration (0.98)			
Does not affect work	1,832	6.9	6.8
Affects kind, amount or prevents work			
Under 5 years	140	4.0	4.4
5 or more years	166	5.0	5.4
NA	26	13.9	11.5
Attitude toward market work[c] (2.89*)			
Favorable	579	11.1	9.2
Ambivalent	882	6.8	6.2
Unfavorable	700	3.2	5.3

* Significant at $\alpha \leq .05$.

a Percentages are adjusted for the effects of all the explanatory variables shown in Tables 3.1 to 3.4.

b Women married only once (currently living with their husbands) who have had children.

c A small number of cases for which information on the variable was not ascertained were included in the analysis but are not reported.

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one-seventh as prevalent among women who state that their husbands dislike very much the idea of their working as among those who report favorable attitudes. Needless to say, one cannot be certain from these data to what extent women are responsive to the actual attitudes of their husbands and to what extent their perceptions of these attitudes are influenced by their behavior.

II OCCUPATIONAL STATUS

In this section of the paper we turn our attention to the factors determining a woman's relative position in the occupational hierarchy at various points in her work life. Because of its obviously important influence on occupational assignment, we first investigate the determinants

Table 3.4 Unadjusted and Adjusted[a] Proportions of Married[b] Career Women, by Selected Marital and Family Characteristics

MCA results (F-ratios in parentheses)

Characteristic	Number of respondents	Unadjusted percent	Adjusted percent
Number of years between school and marriage (0.23)			
Under 2 years	1,146	7.0	6.4
2 or more years	1,018	6.2	6.9
Education of husband (2.46)			
Under 12 years	836	7.4	8.2
12 years	678	5.5	5.8
13 or more years	532	6.4	5.3
NA	118	11.3	9.9
Husband's attitude toward wife's working (13.00**)			
Favorable	804	12.1	11.0
Undecided	409	7.8	7.6
Somewhat unfavorable	397	4.8	5.0
Very unfavorable	507	0.0	1.6
NA	47	3.4	2.9
Husband's health condition[c] (3.24*)			
No effect on work	1,879	6.1	6.3
Prevents or limits work	281	9.7	9.0
Number and spacing of children (5.74**)			
One child			
Less than 3 years from marriage	67	16.0	15.2
3 or more years from marriage	109	12.8	11.9
2 children			
Average spacing less than 3 years	202	7.5	6.4
Average spacing 3 or more years	363	10.0	9.7
3 or more children			
Average spacing less than 3 years	829	3.9	4.2
Average spacing 3 or more years	518	5.8	6.6
NA	76	1.9	0[d]

* Significant at $\alpha \leq .05$.

** Significant at $\alpha \leq .01$.

[a] Percentages are adjusted for the effects of all the explanatory variables shown in Tables 3.1 to 3.4.

[b] Women married only once (currently living with their husbands) who have had children.

[c] A small number of cases for which information on the variable was not ascertained were included in the analysis but are not reported.

[d] Adjusted percentage was negative.

of the amount of education a woman has achieved. Next, controlling for education, we identify the factors affecting the occupational status of the first job she held after leaving school. Third, controlling for occupational status of first job we seek the determinants of the woman's occupational status as of the time of the initial interview in 1967. Finally, with 1967 occupation controlled, the factors associated with variations in occupational status as of 1972 are explored. The third and fourth steps in this investigation amount to an inquiry into the correlates of vertical occupational mobility up to 1967 and over the five-year period covered by the surveys.

Method of Analysis

Each of these four dependent variables has been examined by means of multiple regression analysis. To guarantee that the several stages in the work life under investigation relate to the same set of women, we have confined the universe for each of the four regressions to respondents who were employed in the survey weeks of 1967 and 1972 and for whom information was available for all of the variables in each of the regressions.[17] It should be borne in mind, however, that in another respect the population of women under consideration in this section is broader than in the preceding section, including childless married and never-married women as well as married women with children. A total of 1,245 respondents are included in the analysis.[18] The status measure that has been used to indicate a woman's relative position in the occupational hierarchy is the Bose Index of Occupational Prestige.[19] This measure has the presumed advantage over the widely used Duncan Index of having been developed with respect to female rather than male incumbents of the Census occupational categories.[20]

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[17] There are three exceptions to this generalization: father's education, father's occupational status, and mother's education. To have eliminated from the universe respondents for whom information on one or more of these variables was lacking would have reduced the sample size by about 500 cases. Consequently, these three variables have been used in categorical rather than continuous form, with an NA category included. Another restriction on the universe in addition to those mentioned in the text is the exclusion of never-married women with children, of whom there are too few for meaningful analysis.

[18] Preliminary analyses, stratified by race, revealed no significant interaction between race and the other explanatory variables in any of the regressions except for occupational status in 1972. Because we had no reasonable explanation for why there should have been an interaction in the case of 1972 job but not in the others, pooled data were used in all the regressions, with race as one of the explanatory variables.

[19] See Bose (1973).

[20] But for a different view, see Treiman and Terrell (1975), p. 176.

In developing the analysis, we have been substantially influenced by the study by Blau and Duncan of the determinants of the occupational status of American males.[21] They employed a basic model in which four variables were used to predict a male's occupational status as of 1962: father's education, father's occupation, respondent's education, and respondent's first job. Path analysis permitted the authors to ascertain both the direct and indirect effects of explanatory variables on the dependent variable. To illustrate, they were able to address the question whether father's occupation affected respondent's first job solely through its influence on the amount of education he received (indirect effect) or whether it was related to the status of respondent's first job even with respondent's education controlled (direct effect). This model was then expanded to inquire whether other characteristics--e.g., race, sibling position, and farm background exerted independent effects upon occupational status.

Although we do not use path analysis, we are able to identify the existence of direct and indirect effects of variables by the order in which we force their entrance into a step-wise multiple regression analysis. To illustrate, the education of respondent's father is one of the variables used to explain respondent's educational achievement. The latter, in turn, is obviously an important variable in explaining the relative status of respondent's first job. In the regression analysis of first job, the education of respondent's father is introduced after respondent's education. To the extent that the former variable is statistically significant, one can conclude that the socioeconomic status of family of origin (i.e., father's educational attainment) exerts a direct influence on the occupational status of respondent's first job over and above its indirect effect through respondent's education.

To take another illustration, we hypothesize that respondent's job status in 1967 will be directly related to the extent of her work experience since leaving school. Moreover, in analyzing the status of 1972 job, we control for status of 1967 job and introduce the pre-1967 work experience variable after a variable measuring work experience between 1967 and 1972. This permits us to ascertain whether extent of labor force participation prior to 1967 affects status in 1972 only by virtue of its effect on 1967 job (indirect) or whether it has an additional (direct) influence on 1972 status. To describe this example somewhat differently, the approach we have taken permits us to ascertain whether vertical mobility between 1967 and 1972 is affected only by work experience between the two dates, or whether prior work experience continues to exert an influence.

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[21] Blau and Duncan (1967).

Educational Attainment

Table 3.5 presents the results of regressing years of school completed by respondents on a number of explanatory variables.[22] These factors explain about a fourth of the total variance in educational achievement among women in the sample. It is evident that father's education, mother's education, and father's occupation[23] all exercise independent effects upon the amount of education that women in their thirties and forties have received, although the relationships are not perfectly regular. All of these variables, of course, represent facets of the socioeconomic status of the family of origin and have doubtless conditioned the educational achievement of the respondents both by affecting the amount of education they could afford and the amount that they desired. It is noteworthy that the coefficients for most of the categories of mother's education remain significant even with father's education and occupation in the regression. This suggests the influence of the mother as a role model in conditioning the educational aspirations of her daughter.[24]

It is interesting to note that although the gross difference in years of schooling between white and black women is eight-tenths of a year on average, the coefficient of the race variable is only one-tenth of a year and comes nowhere near being statistically significant. Thus, the data are consistent with the belief that the years-of-schooling difference between white and black women of this generation is explained exclusively by differences between the two races in characteristics determining educational attainment. In the step-wise regression, the size of the coefficient for race dropped substantially when father's education was introduced, and dropped still further in the last step when father's occupation entered the regression.

The historical trend toward higher levels of education is reflected in the fact that a woman in her late forties, other things equal, has an average of three-tenths of a year less education than a woman in her early forties. There is no statistically significant difference, on the other

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[22] The order in which the variables appear in the stub of the table is the order in which they were introduced into the step-wise regression program. Thus although the table shows only the results of the final step, we were able to observe, for example, the coefficients for father's education both before and after education of mother was added.

[23] For ease of expression we refer to this variable as "father's occupation," although for those respondents whose fathers were not a part of the household when respondent was 15 years old the occupation reported is that of head of household.

[24] Cf. Treiman and Terrell (1975), p. 177.

Table 3.5 Net Relationship between Number of Years of School Completed and Selected Characteristics of Respondents

Regression results[a] (t-ratios in parentheses)

Explanatory variable[b]	Regression coefficient[b]	
Race		
Black	-0.1	(-0.47)
Age		
35-39	-0.03	(-0.16)
45-49	-0.3	(-2.24)*
Marital and family status		
Ever-married, no children	0.2	(1.10)
Never-married, no children	1.3	(4.74)**
Family structure at age 15		
Living with mother only	-0.5	(-1.90)*
Living with father only or with other relative or nonrelative	-0.6	(-3.02)**
Nature of residence at age 15		
Rural	-0.3	(-2.33)**
Education of father[c]		
0-5 years	-1.2	(-4.67)**
6-8 years	-0.6	(-2.50)**
9-11 years	-0.1	(-0.18)
13-15 years	-0.1	(-0.11)
16+ years	0.9	(2.37)**
NA	-1.4	(-5.79)**
Occupation of head of household when respondent was 15 (Duncan index)		
0-40	-0.7	(-2.92)**
61-99	0.5	(1.91)*
NA	-0.4	(-1.18)
Education of mother		
0-5 years	-1.1	(-3.78)**
6-8 years	-0.1	(-0.46)
9-11 years	-0.3	(-1.18)
13-15 years	0.9	(2.70)**
16+ years	0.3	(0.56)
NA	-0.6	(-2.54)**
Constant	13.3	(44.95)**
$\bar{R}^2$	0.243	
F-ratio	18.35**	
Number of sample cases	1,245	

* Significant at $\alpha \leq .05$, 1-tail test.

** Significant at $\alpha \leq .01$, 1-tail test.

[a] For description of universe, see text, p. 68.

[b] Regression coefficient indicates the deviation in years of schooling of the indicated category of respondents from the reference group--i.e., the omitted category. For example, the reference group for race is white women; for family structure at age 15, it is women who were living with both parents; for marital and family status, it is ever-married women with children (never-married women with children are excluded from the universe).

[c] Or head of household if respondent did not live with father at age 15.

hand, between women in their late thirties and those in their early forties. Other things equal, women whose formative years were spent in rural areas and also those who grew up in "broken" homes have suffered educational disadvantages. The negative coefficient for rural residence at age 15 is three-tenths of a year. Relative to women who as teenagers lived with both parents, those without one or both parents in the household completed about half a year less school.

Finally, it is of interest to observe that women who had never married (and had borne no children) had a highly significant 1.3 year educational advantage over women who married and had children. On the other hand, the difference between married women with and without children is much smaller and not statistically significant. These relationships suggest that the educational disadvantage of married women relative to the never-married cannot be explained primarily by the necessity of dropping out of school when children arrive. It may reflect discontinuation of education in order to assume the role of housewife. However, it may also simply reflect differences in career aspirations. That is, at least in the generation under consideration, girls in their teens with strong orientations toward careers in the labor market are probably more likely than other girls to have pursued additional education and are probably also less likely ever to have married.

Occupational Status of First Job

The data in Table 3.6 are aimed essentially at answering two major questions. First, do the factors that determine the educational attainment of women exercise additional effects upon initial occupational assignment, or is their influence on occupational assignment indirect, operating only through their effect on education? Second, is the racial difference in occupational status of the jobs respondents took after leaving school explained by the difference between whites and blacks in number of years of schooling and/or other characteristics that we have been able to measure, or is the evidence consistent with the hypothesis of labor market discrimination?

By and large, the answer to the first of these questions is that the family background factors influence initial occupational assignment almost exclusively--although not entirely--via their effect upon education. When respondent's education entered the regression at the third step, the adjusted R^2 rose from 7 percent to 50 percent, and the addition of the remaining variables raised the adjusted R^2 only 2 additional percentage points. Nevertheless, the evidence suggests that even when respondents' education is controlled, those whose mothers were college graduates entered higher status jobs after leaving school than those women whose mothers had less education. It might also be mentioned that prior to the entry of mother's education into the regression, the coefficient for the college-graduate category of father was also significant at the 5 percent level. The high collinearity of the two variables prevents one from assessing their independent effects. There is also some evidence that father's occupation makes a difference, although in this case the pattern

Table 3.6 Net Relationship between Occupational Status[a] of Respondents' First Job and Selected Characterstics of Respondents

Regression results[b] (t-ratios in parentheses)

Explanatory variable[c]	Regression coefficient[c]	
Race		
Black	-8.5	(-9.17)**
Age (1972)		
35-39	-0.6	(-0.72)
45-49	-0.7	(-1.00)
Education of respondent (in years)	3.7	(27.84)**
Marital and family status		
Ever-married, no children	3.1	(2.98)**
Never-married, no children	0.2	(0.19)
Family structure at age 15		
Living with mother only	0.7	(0.58)
Living with father only or with other relative or nonrelative	1.4	(1.47)
Nature of residence at age 15		
Rural	-0.7	(-0.99)
Education of father[d]		
0-5 years	-0.1	(-0.05)
6-8 years	0.4	(0.40)
9-11 years	0.8	(0.64)
13-15 years	1.8	(0.98)
16+ years	-0.1	(-0.03)
NA	1.5	(1.30)
Education of mother		
0-5 years	-1.9	(-1.42)
6-8 years	-2.2	(-2.15)*
9-11 years	0.2	(0.17)
13-15 years	-2.8	(-1.75)*
16+ years	4.5	(2.18)*
NA	-2.1	(-1.79)*
Occupation of head of household when respondent was 15 (Duncan index)		
0-40	-3.2	(-3.09)**
61-99	-2.3	(-1.94)*
NA	-2.3	(-1.60)
Constant	6.6	(2.97)**
$\bar{R}^2$	0.517	
F-ratio	56.43**	
Number of sample cases	1,245	

continued on next page.

Table 3.6 continued.

* Significant at $\alpha \leq .05$, 1-tail test.
** Significant at $\alpha \leq .01$, 1-tail test.
a As measured by Bose Index of Occupational Prestige. For description, see text.
b For description of universe, see text, p. 68.
c Regression coefficient indicates the deviation in occupational status of the indicated category of respondents from the reference group, i.e., the omitted category. See footnote b, Table 3.5. For continuous explanatory variables (e.g., respondents' educational attainment) regression coefficient indicates its average change in Bose Index associated with a one unit change in the explanatory variable (e.g., one year in the case of education).
d Or head of household if respondent did not live with father at age 15.

is perplexing. Women whose fathers were in occupations in the lowest status category took first jobs significantly lower on the occupational ladder than the daughters of men in the intermediate category. However, the coefficient for the highest status category is also negative. Neither coming from a rural background nor growing up in a broken home has an effect on occupational assignment over and above that which occurs through an influence on education.

With respect to the second question posed above, it is clear that the racial difference in initial occupational assignment does not melt away when respondent's education and other explanatory variables are introduced. The 12-point gross differential between blacks and whites in the Bose Index of first job declines only to 8.5 points when other factors are controlled, and over 80 percent of this drop is attributable to the introduction of the variable measuring respondent's education. While this obviously is not conclusive evidence of the existence of labor market discrimination when the women under consideration were leaving school, it is entirely consistent with that interpretation.

The behavior of the marital status variable is intriguing. Women who in 1967 were classified as "ever-married without children" had significantly higher-status first jobs than "ever-married women with children," suggesting that the freedom from the actual care of or the expectation of children permitted the former group to seek and get better jobs than the latter, other things being equal. The trouble with this explanation, however, is that it seems at first blush to be at odds with the fact that the never-married women--who are also without children--took first jobs that were not significantly different from those taken by women who were (or became) mothers, and that, by implication, had lower status than those of the ever-married women with no children. This seems especially strange in view of the career-orientation hypothesis that has previously been offered to explain the higher educational attainment of the never-married group.

On reflection, however, the paradox disappears, especially in light of data contained in Table 3.7 which show that the never-married improved their occupational status between first job and 1967 job to a greater extent than the other two marital status groups even when all other relevant factors are controlled. What all this may mean is that the never-married, precisely because of their stronger career orientations, were more likely than the other groups to take initial jobs with above-average opportunities for on-the-job training but with lower initial status than other jobs without such opportunities for which they could have qualified.

Occupational Mobility: First Job to 1967 Job

The regression results reported in Table 3.7 may be viewed as indicating the determinants of relative vertical occupational movement between first and 1967 job, since the Bose Index of 1967 job is the dependent variable while the Bose Index of initial job is included as a

Table 3.7 Net Relationship between Occupational Status[a] of Respondents' 1967 Job and Selected Characteristics of Respondents

Regression results[b] (t-ratios in parentheses)

Explanatory variable[c]	Regression coefficient[c]	
Race		
Black	-2.1	(-2.31)*
Age		
35-39	-0.8	(-1.07)
45-49	-1.7	(-2.45)**
Occupational status of first job (in Bose index values)	0.4	(14.75)**
Education of respondent as of 1967 (in years)	1.9	(11.74)**
Marital and family status		
Ever-married, no children	-0.5	(-0.43)
Never-married, no children	2.8	(2.20)*
Work experience prior to 1967 (in years)[d]	0.01	(0.64)
Training prior to 1967	1.7	(2.74)**
Health of respondent[e]		
No health problems affecting work		
Health good	-0.9	(-1.34)
Health bad	0.2	(0.14)
Health problems affecting work		
Less than 5 years	-2.9	(-2.00)*
5-9 years	-1.0	(-0.44)
10+ years	-3.4	(-1.97)*
Tenure on 1967 job		
Less than 1 year	-1.9	(-1.64)*
1-2 years	-1.8	(-2.04)*
3-5 years	-0.8	(-0.82)
11-15 years	1.3	(1.24)
16+ years	-0.5	(-0.39)
Nature of residence in 1967		
Rural	-0.9	(-1.38)
Education of father[f]		
0-5 years	-1.5	(-1.37)
6-8 years	-0.8	(-0.82)
9-11 years	1.5	(1.22)
13-15 years	0.4	(0.22)
16+ years	-0.1	(-0.08)
NA	-1.3	(-1.28)
Constant	8.7	(4.10)**
$\bar{R}^2$	0.548	
F-ratio	59.04**	
Number of sample cases	1,245	

Continued on next page.

Table 3.7 continued.

* Significant at $\alpha \leq .05$, 1-tail test.
** Significant at $\alpha \leq .01$, 1-tail test.
a As measured by Bose Index of Occupational Prestige. For description, see text.
b For description of universe, see text, p. 68.
c Regression coefficient indicates the deviation in occupational status of the indicated category of respondents from the reference group, i.e., the omitted category. For example, the reference group for race is white women; for marital and family status, it is ever-married women with children (never-married women with children are excluded from the universe). For continuous explanatory variables, see footnote c, Table 3.6.
d Number of years in which respondent worked six months or more.
e Reference group is respondents with no health problems affecting work who rate their health as excellent.
f Or head of household if respondent did not live with father at age 15.

control variable. That is, a positive coefficient for a particular explanatory variable (other than Bose Index of initial job) suggests that women with that characteristic tended to improve their occupational position relative to that of other women over the period. In interpreting the regression coefficients, it is useful to keep in mind that the mean value of the Bose Index for 1967 was less than two points higher than that for initial job--47.1 versus 45.4.

To begin with, it is hardly surprising that the single best predictor of occupational level in 1967 is the woman's occupational status in her first job. When that variable entered the regression at the second step, the adjusted R^2 rose from 4 percent to 47 percent. The addition of all the remaining variables increased the explained variance by only 8 percentage points. Number of years of school completed by the respondent, in addition to being the principal determinant of the occupational level of her first job, exerts a (direct) influence on 1967 job that is independent of initial occupational status. Controlling for initial level, each year of education adds an average of two points to the Bose Index of 1967 occupation. Similarly, women who had received formal training outside the regular school system prior to 1967 were, other things equal, more likely to have moved up the occupational ladder by 1967 than women without such training.

The construction of the health variable perhaps requires a word of clarification. The reference group consists of women who in 1967 reported no health problems affecting work and who rated their health as "excellent." The categories that are compared with this group are those without health problems who rated their health as "good," similar women who rated their health as "fair" or "poor," and three categories of women who reported health problems affecting work ranked according to the duration of those problems as of 1967. Although the pattern is not entirely regular, the coefficients for two of the three categories of women with work-limiting problems are negative and statistically significant. We conclude that the health of a woman has an effect on the likelihood of upward or downward occupational mobility. It must be kept in mind that the total influence of health in this regard is doubtless greater than what these data show, since the investigation excludes women whose health in 1967 precluded their employment.

The work experience variable and the tenure variable were included to test the hypothesis that general and firm-specific work experience would be positively related to the likelihood of vertical mobility. The tenure variable--that is, length of service with the 1967 employer--was expected to be related to occupational level for institutional reasons as well, e.g., the influence of seniority. The work experience variable, expressed in continuous form, measures the number of years since leaving school in which the woman worked six months or longer. While neither of these variables is consistently significant, in view of the interrelationship between them we are reluctant to reject the hypothesis that each is actually related to the likelihood of upward movement.[25]

We have reserved for the end a discussion of the black-white difference in 1967 occupational status, for the behavior of the race variable has to be evaluated in the light of the effects on occupational level of the other explanatory variables. First, it is to be noted that controlling for all of the other explanatory variables, there remains a statistically significant 2.2 point difference in Bose Index in favor of the whites. This means that, net of other factors, the occupational position of black women relative to white women deteriorated over the period between their first jobs and the time of our initial survey of the sample in 1967, a result comparable to that documented by Blau and Duncan in their study of men.[26]

Occupational Mobility: 1967 to 1972

Determinants of occupational status in 1972 are analyzed in Table 3.8 in a manner analogous to that employed in analyzing 1967 status. That is, the Bose Index for the 1972 occupation of respondents is the dependent variable and the Bose Index of 1967 job is used as a control variable. Again, the base year level of occupation is the best single predictor of occupational status at the end of the period and, because the period is so much shorter in this case, it accounts for a much larger portion of the total variance than when the status of 1967 job was the dependent variable. When the 1967 Bose Index was introduced at the second step, the R^2 rose from 4 percent to 70 percent, and the additional variables caused the explained variance to rise only five more points.

The variables relating to experience between 1967 and 1972 fail to show a statistically significant relationship with vertical movement. It is interesting, on the other hand, that experiences that antedated 1967, and whose effects are therefore presumably reflected in the base year value of the Bose Index, continue to manifest an influence on vertical occupational movement over the five-year period. For example, better educated respondents continue to improve their relative positions, and the same is apparently true of women with pre-1967 training, although the variable does not quite achieve significance at the 5 percent level. Moreover, there is also a positive relationship between pre-1967 work experience and improvement in relative occupational position.

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[25] It may be noted that prior to the introduction of the tenure variable into the regression, the positive coefficient of the work experience variable was significant at the 1 percent level (1-tail test).

[26] Blau and Duncan (1967), p. 209.

Table 3.8 Net Relationship between Occupational Status[a] of Respondents' 1972 Job and Selected Characteristics of Respondents

Regression results[b]
(t-ratios in parentheses)

Explanatory variable[c]	Regression coefficient[c]	
Race		
Black	-2.2	(-3.12)**
Age		
35-39	-0.5	(-0.81)
45-49	1.4	(2.69)**
Occupational status of 1967 job (in Bose index values)	0.8	(35.59)**
Education of respondent (in years)	1.0	(9.17)**
Marital and family status		
Not currently married, children	0.4	(0.62)
Ever-married, no children	0.5	(0.62)
Never-married, no children	-0.4	(-0.39)
Training, 1967-1972	-0.2	(-0.46)
Tenure in 1972 job		
Less than 1 year	0.3	(0.23)
1-2 years	0.4	(0.56)
3-5 years	-0.9	(-1.36)
11-15 years	-0.2	(-0.29)
16+ years	0.6	(0.73)
Migrant status		
Stayer	-0.1	(-0.09)
Comparison of health, 1967-1972[d]		
Health problems affect work in both years	-1.4	(-1.10)
Health improved	-0.9	(-1.03)
Health deteriorated	0.5	(0.53)
Work experience, 1967-1972 (in weeks)	0.01	(1.34)
Training prior to 1967	0.7	(1.60)
Work experience prior to 1967 (in years)[e]	0.02	(2.36)**
Constant	-5.1	(-2.33)**
$\bar{R}^2$	0.749	
F-ratio	178.22**	
Number of sample cases	1,245	

Continued on next page.

Table 3.8 continued.

** Significant at $\alpha \leq .01$.

a As measured by Bose Index of Occupational Prestige. For description, see text.

b For description of universe, see text, p. 68.

c Regression coefficient indicates the deviation in occupational status of the indicated category of respondents from the reference group, i.e., the omitted category. See footnote c, Table 3.7. For continuous explanatory variables, see footnote c, Table 3.6.

d Reference group consists of respondents with no health problems affecting work in either year.

e Number of years in which respondent worked six months or more.

Surprisingly, despite the Civil Rights Movement, the trend in the racial differential that has already been documented for the period between first job and 1967 job appears to have continued over the five-year period from 1967 to 1972. That is, the relative occupational position of black women in this age category appears to have deteriorated further. A major portion of the gross differential of 9 points on the Bose Index in favor of whites disappeared when the Bose Index for 1967 was introduced into the regression, but a 2.2 point differential remains even after all the additional variables are included, a difference that is significant at the 1 percent level. At first blush, these results may seem to be at odds with evidence of a diminishing black-white differential in occupational status that other studies have found.[27] However, it must be kept in mind that our sample consists of women in their thirties and forties who were employed in both 1967 and 1972. It would appear that black women in this age category who were more or less continuously employed did not fare as well relative to whites as cross-sectional data for the entire labor force would suggest.

III SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter has had two interrelated objectives: (1) to ascertain what characteristics of women in their thirties and forties are associated with their having pursued labor market careers and (2) to analyze the determinants of the occupational status of such women at various points in their working lives.

Determinants of Career Status

To be classified as a "career" woman for purposes of this study a woman must have manifested a relatively strong attachment to the labor market and must also have served either in a single occupation or in a group of related occupations. By these criteria only 7 percent of women in their thirties and forties who have ever married and borne children have established careers. In contrast, about half of all childless never-married women have had careers, as have about one-third of ever-married women without children.

Among married women living with their husbands, a number of marital and family characteristics are significantly related to the likelihood of having pursued a career. For example, other things equal, women whose husbands have had health problems are more likely than other women to have established careers. The number and spacing of children have important effects on the likelihood of careers. In multiple-child families, the longer the average number of years between births, the greater the likelihood of career status, perhaps reflecting the greater possibility of using older siblings to provide child care. Finally, attitudinal factors apparently exert an influence. There is a very substantial relation between a woman's perception of her husband's attitude toward her working and the likelihood that she will have established a career. Moreover, her own attitude toward the propriety of labor market activity by married women with children has a significant relationship with whether she has pursued a career.

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[27] See, for example, Freeman (1973), p. 70.

Irrespective of the characteristics of her husband and family, the more education a woman has had the more likely she is to have pursued a career. Moreover, type of education also plays a role; women who have pursued professional programs at the university level are more likely than other university graduates to have had careers. Participation in lengthy training programs outside of regular school also increases the likelihood of a career, as does possession of a certificate or license for the practice of a trade or profession.

Finally, two factors relating to the woman's early home environment are related to the likelihood that she will subsequently establish a career. Women from rural areas and small cities are more likely than those from large cities to have established careers. Whether her mother worked when the respondent was a teenager is also influential; women who had working mothers are more likely than others to have established careers for themselves.

Occupational Status and Occupational Mobility

The single most important influence on the occupational level a woman occupies is the amount of education she has obtained. Our analysis of occupational status, therefore, has begun with an investigation of the determinants of educational attainment and has then focused on the factors affecting the relative occupational status of the woman at three points in her employment history: after leaving school, in 1967 when our surveys began, and in 1972 at the end of the five-year period under investigation.

Educational attainment The educational attainment and occupational status of her father and the educational attainment of her mother each have an independent influence on the number of years of schooling a woman obtains. All three of these measures are dimensions of the socioeconomic status of her family of orientation. The significant effect of mother's education may also reflect the influence of an educational role model. In addition to these dominant influences, other factors in a woman's background affect the amount of education she gets. Specifically, coming from a broken home or living in a rural area as a teenager has a depressing effect on the amount of education a woman obtains. A woman who by her thirties or forties has not married--other things equal--enjoys a substantial educational advantage over her married counterparts. Although the gross difference in educational attainment between white and black women averages 0.8 years, virtually all of this appears to be explained by differences between the two groups in the characteristics that are related to educational attainment.

Occupational status: first job The position a woman achieves in the occupational hierarchy when she first enters the labor market is substantially determined by the amount of education she has received. Thus, the influence on occupational status of the socioeconomic status of her family of orientation is almost exclusively indirect, operating through its effect on her educational attainment. Nevertheless, there appears also to be a slight direct effect. Specifically, having a mother with a college degree improves the occupational status of a woman even controlling for her own education. The racial difference in occupational status of first job remains when other factors are controlled, suggesting the presence of labor market discrimination when this cohort of women first sought work.

Occupational mobility: first job to 1967 Whether a woman changed her relative position in the occupational hierarchy between her first job and the time she was interviewed in 1967 depends upon a number of factors. Educational attainment, the receipt of training outside the regular school system, and good health are all positively associated with upward movement. Being black, on the other hand, bears a negative relationship with upward movement. In other words, despite the lower positions in which they started their careers, black women in this age group had by 1967 suffered a further deterioration in occupational status relative to white women.

Occupational mobility: 1967 to 1972 None of our measures relating to the five-year period between 1967 and 1972 bears a significant relationship to occupational mobility over that period. On the other hand, factors relating to the period prior to 1967 continued to exert an influence. Better-educated women improved their relative positions during this five-year period as they had previously. Pre-1967 work experience also continued to receive a return in the form of upward movement. Being black continued to create a relative disadvantage; the occupational position of black women relative to white in our sample was lower in 1972 than in 1967.

Conclusion

Whether it is desirable for a married woman with children to have a labor market career is a value-laden question on which there is doubtless disagreement among women (and men) of good will. The evidence presented in this chapter indicates that relatively few such women who are currently in their late thirties and their forties have pursued careers. However, given the strong independent influence that attitudes of both husband and wife appear to exercise on the likelihood that a woman will have pursued a career, there is clearly the possibility of substantial increases in the proportion of career women as attitudes on the "proper" role of women continue to change over time.

The evidence relating to the determinants of the occupational status of working women is from some points of view encouraging. The occupational position of women in the labor market is for the most part the result not of haphazard forces but of precisely those factors that one should expect to be influential and, to a considerable extent, those that operate for men. Indeed, although no evidence on this question has been presented here, the same data base has been used in conjunction with a data set for men to demonstrate that the process of status achievement is essentially the same for women as for men.[28]

Marital status, however, is not only strongly related to the likelihood of a woman's establishing a career, but also has a bearing on her occupational status that is independent of the amount of time she has spent in the labor force. To begin with, women who marry and have children have obtained less education than never-married women with similar backgrounds. Controlling for other characteristics, their initial jobs have status levels no different from those held by never-married women, but they are less likely than the never-married to move up the occupational ladder over time. These findings do not necessarily mean that marriage impedes upward mobility for women with given degrees of attachment to the labor force; the evidence is equally consistent with the hypothesis that a selective process operates such that women with strong career orientations are less likely to marry than those who wish to emphasize other roles.

One aspect of the evidence on occupational status is disheartening. Controlling for all other factors that we have been able to measure, the occupations taken at the beginning of their careers by blacks now in their thirties and forties were lower in the status hierarchy than those taken by whites with comparable characteristics. Moreover, the relative disparity in this respect widened over their careers--even during the half decade between 1967 and 1972. This is an additional reminder that the rather impressive effort in recent years in combatting racial discrimination in the labor market still leaves something to be desired.

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[28] Treiman and Terrell (1975).

APPENDIX TO CHAPTER III

METHOD OF CODING CAREER STATUS

As has been explained in the text, in order to be classified as a "career" woman, a respondent must have (1) had more than a specified minimum amount of employment since leaving school and (2) had a consistent pattern of occupational assignment. The first of these criteria is completely quantitative and involves no judgment once the criterion is specified. The second criterion, however, is substantially qualitative and is therefore both more difficult to specify and more difficult to apply.

After a careful examination of a random sample of work histories, the following set of guidelines was developed for the careers:

1. If a woman is in the same three-digit occupation in all time periods, she is a career woman.
2. If a woman is in clearly related three-digit occupations in all time periods, she is a career woman. For related occupations, see attached "families of occupations."[1]
3. If a woman is in a series of occupations that are not necessarily closely related but which reflect a movement up the occupational ladder, she is a career woman. Examples: practical nurse to professional nurse; bookkeeper to accountant; clerical n.e.c. to office manager n.e.c.
4. If a woman is in the same three-digit occupation in every time period except for one survey week other than 1972, she is a career woman.
5. If a woman is in the same three-digit occupation in every time period except survey week 1972 she is a possible career woman.
6. When a woman is in the same or related occupation in all periods except the first, she is designated as a career woman unless the period of time in that first occupation amounts to one-third or more of her total recorded work experience.

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[1] See pp. 91-92, below.

7. For ever-married women with children, exactly the same rule as number 6 applies with respect to occupation between marriage and birth of first child and with respect to the job between birth of child and 1967.

8. It is recognized that even with the foregoing guidelines, there will be doubtful cases. Try to code each woman as "career" or "noncareer." However, if you are really undecided, use a third category, "possible career."

9. Where any piece of information is missing that could make a difference according to the foregoing rules, the respondent should be coded NA on this variable.

These guidelines were explained and illustrated in a group session to three graduate students who had had extensive experience with the data. They were then asked to code the work histories independently and to analyze the extent of their disagreement.

In all, there were 581 respondents whose attachment to the labor force was sufficiently extensive to meet the first criterion of having had a career, and it was only this subset of the sample whose patterns of occupational assignment were examined. In slightly under a fifth of these cases the woman was in the same three-digit occupation in all time periods, so that classifying her as a "career" woman was completely straightforward. In an additional 54 percent of the cases the three coders were unanimous in their judgments. Finally, there was another 12 percent of the cases in which two of the coders were agreed and the judgment of the third was not very different, as where two classified a woman as "career" and the third classified her as "possible career" or where two designated a woman as "possible career" and the third called her "noncareer." In these instances, the code assigned by the majority was the one used.

Thus, in only 16 percent of the cases was there a substantial disagreement among the coders as to whether a woman should be classified as "career" or "noncareer." These cases were reviewed and discussed by the three coders jointly, and a resolution of each disagreement was achieved. It was their unanimous judgment that most of the initial disagreements resulted from an oversight on the part of one or another of the coders; that is, their experience led them to believe that careful and literal application of the guidelines would have allowed all but a very small number of the cases to be coded unambiguously and confidently. In the analysis of the data, the small number of cases coded as "possible career" were combined with the "noncareer."

Career Codes for Illustrative Cases Involving Ever-Married Women with Children

Datum	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3	Case 4
Age of respondent	42	37	36	30
Years of school completed	10	12	16	6
Period between school and marriage				
Occupation[a]	typist	medical technician	teacher, secondary	charwoman
Years worked[b]	2	4	1	2
Years elapsed	7	4	1	8
Period between marriage and first child				
Occupation[a]	na	medical technician	secretary	na
Years worked[b]	na	1	3	na
Years elapsed	na	1	4	na
Period between first child and 1967 survey				
Occupation[a]	waitress	medical technician	teacher, elementary	unpaid farm laborer
Years worked[b]	7	7	6	10
Years elapsed	20	13	11	10
Tenure with 1967 employer (years)	3	0	6	10
Occupation in survey week of:				
1967	hairdresser	secretary	teacher, elementary	unpaid farm laborer
1969	hairdresser	practical nurse	teacher, elementary	unpaid farm laborer
1971	steward	med/dent assistant	teacher, elementary	unpaid farm laborer
1972	mgr.,n.e.c.	nurse	teacher, elementary	unpaid farm laborer
Comparative job status, 1967-1972[c]	different	different	same	same
Career status code	noncareer	career	career	career

Table continued on next page.

Career Codes for Illustrative Cases Involving Ever-Married Women with Children continued

Datum	Case 5	Case 6	Case 7	Case 8
Age of respondent	30	42	35	41
Years of school completed	16	12	12	14
Period between school and marriage				
Occupation[a]	stenographer	clerical, n.e.c.	clerical, n.e.c.	bookkeeper
Years worked[b]	na	1	5	6
Years elapsed	2	4	5	8
Period between marriage and first child				
Occupation[a]	stenographer	clerical, n.e.c.	clerical, n.e.c.	hospital attendant
Years worked[b]	na	6	2	3
Years elapsed	2	6	2	6
Period between first child and 1967 survey				
Occupation[a]	stenographer	bookkeeper	clerical, n.e.c.	bookkeeper
Years worked[b]	4	12	5	1
Years elapsed	10	12	9	13
Tenure with 1967 employer (years)	4	17	4	1
Occupation in survey week of:				
1967	payroll clerk	saleswoman	librarian	bookkeeper
1969	payroll clerk	clerical, n.e.c.	secretary	saleswoman, n.e.c.
1971	mgr., n.e.c.	na	library attendant	bookkeeper
1972	bookkeeper	bookkeeper	library attendant	bookkeeper
Comparative job status, 1967-1972[c]	same	different	same	different
Career status code	noncareer	noncareer	possible career	possible career

[a] Longest occupational assignment of longest job in period.

[b] Number of years served in longest job of period.

[c] Indicates whether respondent worked for same employer in 1972 as in 1967.

Families of Occupations

I

802 - Housekeepers, private household
804 - Private household workers (n.e.c.)
821 - Boarding and lodging-house keepers
823 - Chambermaids and maids, except private household
824 - Charwomen and cleaners
832 - Housekeepers and stewards, except private household
834 - Janitors and sextons

II

102 - Farm and home management advisers
111 - Librarians
120 - Musicians and music teachers
180 - Sports instructors
182 - Elementary teachers
183 - Secondary teachers
184 - Teachers (n.e.c.)

III

250 - Buyers and department heads, store
382 - Demonstrators
383 - Hucksters and peddlers
394 - Salesmen and sales clerks (n.e.c.)

IV

150 - Professional nurses
151 - Student professional nurses
185 - Medical and dental technicians
303 - Physicians' and dentists' office attendants
810 - Attendants, hospitals and other institutions
842 - Practical nurses

V

825 - Cooks
830 - Counter and fountain workers
835 - Kitchen workers (n.e.c.), except private household
875 - Waiters and waitresses

VI

651 - Dressmakers and seamstresses, except factory
705 - Sewers and stitchers, manufacturing

VII

902 - Farm laborers, wage workers
903 - Farm laborers, unpaid family workers

VIII

000 - Accountants
305 - Bank tellers
310 - Bookkeepers
312 - Cashiers
325 - Office machine operators
333 - Payroll and timekeeping clerks
370 - Clerical and kindred workers (n.e.c.)

IX

341 - Receptionists
342 - Secretaries
345 - Stenographers
360 - Typists
370 - Clerical and kindred workers (n.e.c.)

X

370 - Clerical and kindred workers (n.e.c.)
Any clerical occupation

XI

775 - Operatives and kindred workers (n.e.c.)
Any operative occupation

XII

290 - Managers, officials and proprietors (n.e.c.)
310 - Bookkeepers
342 - Secretaries
370 - Clerical and kindred workers (n.e.c.)
394 - Salesmen and sales clerks (n.e.c.)

XIII

430 - Foremen (n.e.c.)
Any operative category

XIV

815 - Bartenders
875 - Waiters and waitresses

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CHAPTER IV

THE INFLUENCE OF WORK EXPERIENCE AND TYPICALITY OF OCCUPATIONAL ASSIGNMENT ON WOMEN'S EARNINGS

Carol L. Jusenius[*]

This chapter examines the wage position of women in the American labor force. Its objective is to analyze the impact on women's average hourly earnings of both their levels of human capital and the characteristics of the labor market in which they operate. Within these two broad categories of factors are a myriad of very specific ones. Many have been well researched and their relationship to wage rates has been fully established, e.g., education and region of residence. Others have appeared only recently in the literature on women's earnings, and the evidence of their significance to wage determination is less complete, e.g., historical labor force experience,[1] and occupational segregation (or sex-labelling of occupations).[2]

While the analysis here includes many of these factors, its unique aspect lies in the treatment accorded to two factors about which knowledge is least complete. First, the circumstances under which work experience is an important influence on women's earnings are explored by including a measure of the skill requirement of the occupations in which they are found. In this context the question is whether--all other things being equal--occupations differ in the extent to which they offer rewards for accumulating human capital, specifically, for continuous labor market exposure. The hypothesis is that while continuous work experience is significant in determining wages of women in high skill occupations, it is not significant in determining the wages of women in low skill occupations, ceteris paribus. Second, the research tests the impact on wages of sex-labelling of occupations. The expectation is that, all other things being equal, women in "typically female" occupations receive lower earnings than women in "typically male" occupations.

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[1] See Mincer and Polachek (1974); Sandell and Shapiro (1975); and Suter and Miller (1973).

[2] See Bergmann (1974); Edgeworth (1922); Fawcett (1918); Jusenius and Shortlidge (1975); Kohen and Roderick (1973); Oppenheimer (1973); and Waldman and McEaddy (1974).

The logic underlying these two hypotheses is discussed in the following two sections. Section I describes the measure "skill requirement" and presents the reasoning behind its use as a control in attempts to measure the true effects on wages of human capital factors. Section II discusses the importance of controlling for the skill requirement of an occupation in attempts to isolate the impact on wages of an occupation's sex-label. Section III presents the empirical model and its results. The conclusions are presented in the final section.

I SKILL REQUIREMENT AND HUMAN CAPITAL

It has long been recognized that individuals vary in their stocks of accumulated human capital. Workers differ in the amount of formal education completed, in the number and types of formal training programs taken, and in the amount of informal, on-the-job training. It is also well known that greater economic rewards accrue to those who have invested more heavily in themselves.

A direct measure of "extent of lifetime work experience" is the latest addition to the list of human capital variables employed in economic research on women's earnings. Put simply, the argument is that individuals (primarily married women with children) who leave the labor force for a period of time experience a deterioration in the level of their skills relative to those workers (primarily men and single women) who remain in the labor force continuously. As a result, the former have a lower effective level of human capital than the latter and hence receive lower wages.[3]

Occupation's Skill Requirement

But the issue is not so clear-cut: the extent to which human capital factors, including lifetime work experience, are likely to be of importance to wages may well depend upon the occupation in which the individual is found. Specifically, the impact of education and training on wages may depend upon the length of time necessary to learn the skills required by that occupation. Also, the importance of previous work experience is likely to vary according to the length of time necessary to relearn the skills if a worker has left the labor force.

To illustrate--consider two women, age 40, who re-enter the labor force after a 15-year absence. The first becomes a waitress. Because relatively few skills are required in this occupation, the educational requirements are likely to be low, and any job-specific training required would be of short duration. Moreover, in the absence of other limitations, it is difficult to imagine that this woman would receive substantially below-average wages in her occupational category because of skill-obsolescence growing out of discontinuities in her employment history.

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[3] A rigorous formulation of this argument is found in Mincer and Polachek (1974).

In contrast, a second woman wishes to re-enter the labor force as a nurse. Since entrance into this occupation requires acquisition of a large body of specialized knowledge, a lengthy initial training process is essential. Furthermore, it is probable that a nurse who was not in the labor force continuously would experience a deterioration in her skills. This woman might be required to take a lengthy retraining program if she wished to meet the standards of performance maintained by those who have been continuously employed and to receive equivalent wages.

This description of the likely experiences of these two women illustrates the earlier statement that the importance of human capital factors to wage determination is likely to vary among occupations. It also suggests that in any analysis of the effect of employment experience on earnings, it is desirable to classify occupations by the level of skills they require of their incumbents.

A Classification Scheme

In such a categorization scheme, human capital factors would play a greater (or lesser) role in explaining wages depending upon: (1) the extent to which the present state of technology mandates a lengthy training program to enter the occupation; (2) the extent to which technological change in the occupation has occurred in recent years and has made previous training and experience obsolete; and (3) the extent to which a worker's own skills could deteriorate through nonuse.[4]

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[4] An abbreviated, but analogous, description of variations in the skill requirements of occupations is found in Mangum and Snedecker (1974), p. 85. It should be noted that the empirical analysis of work experience will test only the effect of the first and third factors listed above. We have no measure of the extent to which technological change has occurred in specific occupations over the life spans of the women in our sample. It is worth mentioning, however, that technological change may also make obsolete the previous training of workers continuously employed. There seems to be no _a priori_ reason to believe that _all_ workers continuously employed "keep up" with technological advances in their occupations. Furthermore, while it is frequently assumed that technological change serves to _increase_ the level of sophistication necessary to perform the relevant job tasks, it is possible (and indeed has happened historically) that technological advances serve to _reduce_ the necessary level of skills. In this case, workers who had left the labor force for a period of time might be no worse off in terms of their knowledge and skill level than those who had been employed continuously.

Specifically, at the one extreme would be those sets of jobs for which few skills are required and the length of time necessary to learn (or to relearn) them is short. Within this set it is unlikely that educational attainment would be of critical importance or that continuous work experience would add substantially to a worker's productivity.[5] For example, all other things being equal, it is anticipated that there would be little, if any, wage differential between an elevator operator with one year of experience prior to joining her current employer and another with 15 years of experience prior to joining her current employer.

At the other extreme would be those occupations which require a specific, highly technical set of skills (such as any of the professions). Acquisition of these skills involves a lengthy training process, and maintenance of the necessary level of skills requires employment. A failure to work continuously may result in a deterioration of a worker's skills relative to those who have been employed continuously.[6] In other words, in contrast to the previous set of occupations, wages in this group would be influenced by both education and the amount of work experience.

It is important to note that in this classification scheme we are explicitly differentiating between the set of skills required by occupations and the set of skills (or levels of human capital) embodied in workers. In other words, it is being suggested that two analogous skill distributions exist: human capital among workers and skill requirements among occupations.[7]

Human Capital and Skill Requirement

While a worker's stock of human capital, particularly education, is frequently taken as a proxy for the skill requirement of the occupation in which the worker is found, this does not appear to be appropriate. It seems quite realistic to suppose that the distribution of skills--both type and level--required by occupations is not identical to the distribution of skills--both type and level--found among their incumbents.

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[5] Essentially the same point is made for the experience of black men in Bergmann (1969) and for the experiences of women in Bergmann (1973). See also Kalachek and Raines (1975).

[6] Because the body of knowledge required for adequate job performance is also likely to be growing or changing over time due to technological progress, this is a case in which the level of human capital an employer deems acceptable at one point in time may be less than that which is acceptable at a later date.

[7] A similar conceptual distinction is made in Parnes (1962).

For example, anticipating a high level of demand for a particular type of labor, a woman may educate herself to a given level and along certain lines. In later years, however, the demand for this type of labor may decline, resulting in few opportunities for employment. As a consequence, she may be employed in another occupation--one which may or may not require the full utilization of her previously acquired education and training. (An illustration is provided by individuals trained as school teachers who have been forced by demand conditions to move into other occupations.) Moreover, among women in particular, it is not uncommon to find occupations, e.g., secretarial work, in which there are substantial numbers of workers with college degrees as well as substantial numbers with high school diplomas.[8]

The point is that while accumulated human capital measures the actual skills of a worker, the skill requirement of an occupation is a measure of the level of skills necessary to perform adequately a given set of job tasks. Each occupation may be thought of as having a minimum level of required skills and it is possible for an incumbent of an occupation to embody more human capital than is minimally required.[9]

Clearly a worker whose own skills lie below the minimum level required by the occupation cannot adequately perform the job tasks of this occupation, i.e., cannot enter it. Another worker whose own skills lie above the minimum level required by the occupation receives additional rewards for embodying more skills than are minimally required.

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[8] This is not meant to imply that education has no separate effect on wages. Indeed, controlling for other factors, it is quite conceivable that a secretary with 16 years of schooling is more productive (and hence earns higher wages) than one with 12 years of schooling. Moreover, it is also possible that these two secretaries would be in positions of different grades within any given firm and that further disaggregation of an occupational classification scheme (e.g., 6-digit rather than 3-digit) would show this to be the case.

[9] It is reasonable to expect within the category of jobs which require many sophisticated skills there would be a relatively high correlation between the skills necessary to perform the job tasks and the actual skill level of the workers. In this case, because the level of necessary skills is high, the theoretical range of variation in the distribution of skills among workers would be relatively small, ranging from a baccalaureate to a doctoral degree, for example. However, in the case of low-skill jobs (domestic service, for instance) such a correlation between necessary and actual skills is less likely to occur. That is, because the minimally necessary level of skills is low, the theoretical range of variation in the human capital backgrounds of the incumbents is considerable (from an elementary school education to a college degree, for example). See Table 4.5 for the simple correlations between skill requirement and education.

The question is: do returns to additional units of human capital vary across occupations depending on the level of skills they require? Alternatively stated, do women in occupations with a low skill requirement receive lower wages than women in high skill occupations because (1) they have lower stocks of human capital (e.g., fewer years of schooling and/or experience); (2) they receive lower marginal returns for whatever amount of human capital they have accumulated (e.g., a lower payoff to each additional year of schooling and/or experience); or (3) they have lower stocks of human capital *and* receive lower returns for each additional unit of human capital? The implication of these questions for empirical work is that a test of the separate effects on earnings of education, training, and labor force experience must include a control for an occupation's skill requirement.

Such a control can be instituted through a measure of the length of time normally required to become proficient in an occupation--the shorter the period of time required, the lower the occupation's skill requirement. While certainly the exact amount of training is difficult to ascertain and will in fact vary among individuals, it is possible to rank occupations in terms of the *relative* amount of time necessary to learn the relevant set of skills.[10]

For the reasons outlined above, a measure of an occupation's skill requirement is critical to tests of the impact of human capital factors on women's wages. Yet this is only one reason for including such a control. As we shall now see, it is also essential for a valid test of the effects of occupational segregation on women's wages.

II SKILL REQUIREMENT AND OCCUPATIONAL SEGREGATION

As was noted at the outset, occupational segregation is a second issue which has recently received wide attention in discussions of women's earnings. It has been found that individuals in "female-intensive" industries earn a lower weekly rate of pay than individuals in "male-intensive" industries. It has also been found that women in typically female occupations earn a lower hourly rate of pay than women in typically male occupations.[11]

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[10] This ranking system is based on the "Specific Vocational Preparation" index found in the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*. The precise manner in which it was constructed is described in the Appendix to this chapter.

[11] Waldman and McEaddy (1974); Jusenius and Shortlidge (1975); and Kohen and Roderick (1973). It should be noted that the first two of

Yet sex segregation in the occupational distribution by itself does not necessarily imply lower wages for either men or women. However, segregation in conjunction with some other characteristic(s)--associated either with women or with occupations--could help to explain women's wage position. For this reason, research on the subject of occupational segregation has attempted to ascertain why segregation seems to result in lower wages for women rather than for men.

Some authors have suggested that sex segregation in the occupational distribution has resulted in an "overcrowding" of women in a select number of occupations and that it is the interplay of a relatively low demand for women workers with a relatively high level of supply that has led to their wage position.[12] Others have argued that women predominate in occupations which have comparatively low skill requirements and that it is the low skill level (in conjunction with an overcrowding phenomenon) which accounts for their relatively low earnings.[13]

Any attempt to measure the "true" effects of sex-typing of occupations on women's wages must disentangle these explanations. To show only that women in typically female jobs earn less than women in typically male jobs may mean only that women tend to be concentrated in low-skill occupations which might be expected to pay lower wages. Moreover, to the extent that this is the case, it could also be argued that the presence of women in these low-skill occupations reflects simply their actual or expected interruptions in employment. On the other hand, such an explanation would not be consistent with a finding that typically female occupations pay lower wages than typically male

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these studies employed only tabular analysis which in the case of Waldman and McEaddy did not include controls for human capital factors. Jusenius and Shortlidge controlled only for educational attainment (and race). The research of Kohen and Roderick used multivariate techniques.

[12] See Bergmann (1975). See also Edgeworth (1922) and Fawcett (1918).

[13] Sawhill (1973). It should be noted that segregation and overcrowding can occur because of the tastes of employers (as in Bergmann 1974) or because of the tastes of women themselves (as might be suggested by the human capital school). [See Blau and Jusenius (1975) for an elaboration of this point.] In this chapter no attempt is made to locate the source of those "tastes" which may be the cause of segregation. Here we shall only be testing the effect on wages of an occupation's sex-label. While some of the empirical results may be consistent with an overcrowding phenomenon, they do not prove its existence.

occupations within skill categories. Thus it becomes essential to control for skill level of occupations in examining the effect on earnings of being in "female" as opposed to "male" occupations.[14]

An examination of Table 4.1, which presents the distribution of occupations by their skill requirement and their sex-label, indicates that proportionately more "female" than "male" occupations are found at the lower end of the spectrum of skill requirement. However, both male and female jobs are found in every skill-requirement category: typically female occupations, like typically male ones, vary in the amount of skills they require of their incumbents. Differentiation between (1) the effect of the skill level required by typically male and typically female occupations and (2) the effect of an occupation's sex-label controlling for its skill requirement becomes not only possible, but also essential to the entire argument regarding the impact on women's earnings of sex-typing of occupations in the labor market.

III EMPIRICAL TEST

To test the arguments set forth in the previous sections, multiple regressions were run for the universe of women who were employed as wage or salary workers in 1972. The dependent variable was the natural log of the women's 1972 average hourly earnings, permitting the coefficients to be interpreted as the percentage effects of changes in the independent variables on the wage rate.

Specification of the Model

The basic equation of the empirical model was formulated as:

$$\ln \mathrm{AHE} = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \,\mathrm{EDUCATION} + \alpha_2 \,\mathrm{EVER\ TRAIN} + \sum_{i=1}^{3} \alpha_{3i} \,\mathrm{EXPERIENCE}_i - \alpha_4 \,\mathrm{FEMOCC} + \sum_{j=1}^{3} \alpha_{5j} \,\mathrm{SKILL}_j + \sum_{k=1}^{7} \alpha_{6k} Z_k$$

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[14] Because we are exploring the possibility of a wage differential between women in women's jobs and women in men's jobs, this may be considered a conservative test of the effects on women's earnings of an occupation's sex-label. That is, if women and men operated in essentially different labor markets, it is possible that the sex-typing of a woman's occupation would have no independent effect on her wages. See Madden (1973) for a discussion of this issue in terms of differing supply-elasticities of men and women.

Table 4.1 Percentage Distribution of Occupations[a], by Skill Requirement and Sex-Label

Skill requirement[b] / Sex-label[c]	Number of occupations	Total percent	Low skill	Intermediate skill	High skill
Typically male	213	100	16.9	15.0	68.9
Typically female	66	100	33.9	29.3	36.9

[a] Occupations are the three-digit categories of the Bureau of the Census classification system.

[b] The low skill category consists of those occupations for which the length of time needed to learn the relevant job tasks ranges from a short demonstration to a maximum of three months. The occupations within this set which embody the greatest skill requirements are, for example, elevator operators, taxicab drivers (typically male jobs) and kitchen workers (a typically female job).

The second skill category is comprised of those occupations which require from over three months to one year of training. Included here are, for example, typists, office machine operators (typically female jobs), and shipping and receiving clerks (a typically male job).

In sharp contrast to these two sets of occupations is the high skill category, for which over a year is necessary to become proficient in the job tasks, e.g., nursing and teaching.

See the Appendix to this chapter for the precise definition of the variable "skill requirement" and for the way in which it was created.

[c] Occupations are defined as typically male or typically female by a comparison of the percentage of the labor force in 1970 which was female with the percentage of an occupation's incumbents who were female. See Appendix to this chapter for a more extended discussion of the manner in which the variable was created.

where $\sum_{k=1}^{7} \alpha_{6k} Z_k$ represents the set of variables which are thought of as controls: race; health; region of residence; full or part-time worker (measured by the number of hours usually worked per week); private or public employee; presence of collective bargaining; and size of local labor market. The specification of these "control" variables and their expected signs are presented in Table 4.2 below.

The variables representing the human capital factors which are of special interest to this model are shown separately in the above equation. Education (EDUCATION) is a continuous variable, measured by the highest grade a woman completed (0 through 18 years of schooling). EVER TRAIN is a dummy variable which represents the completion of a training program at some point between the year the woman completed her formal schooling and 1972. The reference group for this variable consists of women who started, but never completed a program as well as those who never participated in a program.

There are three measures of work experience. TENURE is a direct measure (obtained retrospectively) of the number of years a woman has been with her 1972 employer. YEARS WORKED is a direct measure (also obtained retrospectively) of the number of years a woman worked at least six months between the year she left school and 1967. The third work experience variable, WEEKS WORKED, measures the number of weeks a woman was employed between 1968 and 1972.[15] Because tenure has been included as a separate independent variable, the coefficients of these latter two variables are interpreted as the percentage effects on wages of a woman's total experience, controlling for the years of service with her 1972 employer. Each of the human capital variables--education, training, and the various measures of work experience--was expected to be positive.

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[15] It should be noted that this variable does not include the period between the 1967 and 1968 interviews. This particular year was omitted because the data, collected through a mail questionnaire in 1968, was less accurate than that collected through face-to-face interviews in other years. The concern was that inclusion of data from this year would bias the results--particularly those for women with few years of schooling.

Regressions were also run with a variable, based on the "weeks worked" measure, which represented the number of years a woman worked six or more months between 1968 and 1972. The results of this set did not differ significantly from the set which included the "weeks worked" variable. Therefore, because "WEEKS WORKED" is a more precise measure of recent work experience, only the results of the regressions which included this variable are presented.

Table 4.2 Specification of Control Variables for 1972 Wage Equations

Name (acronym)[a]	Form	Expected sign
1. Race (BLACK)	Dummy	-
2. Health (BAD HEALTH)	Dummy	-
3. Full-time or part-time worker[b] (PART TIME)	Dummy	-
4. Public or private employee (PRIVATE)	Dummy	-
5. Region of residence (SOUTH)	Dummy	-
6. Size of local labor market (SIZE)	Continuous	+
7. Collective bargaining coverage (COLBAR)	Dummy	+

[a] For dummy variables the acronym refers to the group which has been coded 1. For example, in the variable representing race, a woman was coded 1 if she is black and 0 if she is white.

[b] A full-time worker is defined as one who usually worked 35 or more hours per week at her survey-week job. Part-time work is thus defined as anything less than 35 hours per week.

The basic equation also includes the two variables which represent the occupational characteristics of particular interest here: the sex-label of an occupation (FEMOCC) and an occupation's skill requirement (SKILL). The sex-label variable is a dichotomy--1 if the occupation is stereotypically female and 0 if the occupation is stereotypically male. The manner in which it was constructed is described in the Appendix to the chapter. It was hypothesized that the coefficient of this variable would be negative. The occupational characteristic, SKILL, is derived from the "Specific Vocational Preparation" (SVP) index found in the Dictionary of Occupational Titles. The index ranges in value from 1 to 9; women were assigned the value of the SVP index for the occupation in which they served.[16]

Regression Results

The first stage of the empirical analysis involved a "pilot test" of the importance to wages of an occupation's skill requirement. The test was designed to determine if the effect on wages of the independent variables varied significantly across skill (SVP) strata. The results of a Chow test demonstrated that it was only necessary to stratify the women into three groups--low, medium, and high skill.[17] The LOW SKILL group is comprised of women whose occupations had a SVP value of 2 or 3; the MEDIUM SKILL group consists of women whose occupations had a SVP value of 4 or 5; the HIGH SKILL category includes women whose occupations had a SVP code ranging from 6 through 8.[18] Since it is clearly possible for wages to vary within each of these strata according to the precise skill (SVP) level of the occupation, dummy variables representing the "within stratum" SVP codes were included in the equations for the three strata.[19] Table 4.3 presents the regression results for the wage equations of women in low, intermediate, and high skill jobs.

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[16] The index codes are hierarchically arranged so that greater values in the index represent longer periods of time. The definitions of the codes, as well as the way in which the index was modified to correspond to the Census three-digit occupational classification scheme, are described in the Appendix to the chapter. It should be noted here that no women were in an occupation which had a code 1 or a code 9; therefore these values are excluded from the analysis.

[17] The calculated F-statistic comparing the pooled results with results of the three separate skill categories was significant at $\alpha = .01$.

[18] Chow tests were also run to determine if stratification along racial lines was necessary. For the LOW SKILL and HIGH SKILL strata, the calculated F-ratios were not significant at $\alpha = .05$. For the INTERMEDIATE SKILL grouping the F-ratio was significant at $\alpha = .05$, but not at $\alpha = .01$. Because of the somewhat inconclusive nature of these results, the pooled equation for this skill grouping is presented in the text. The equations for each of the two racial groups are presented in Appendix Table 4A-1.

Low skill The regression results for the lowest skill category (equation 1) provides partial support for the hypothesis developed earlier regarding the probable lack of importance of experience to wage determination for women in this skill category. On the one hand, after controlling for the effects of tenure, the number of years a woman was employed between the year she left school and 1967 did not significantly affect her wages. On the other hand, more recent experience, i.e., the number of weeks she was employed between 1968 and 1972, did significantly influence her 1972 wage rate. These finding, when combined with the distribution of occupations shown in Table 4.1, lead to the conclusion that about one-third of the occupations typically acceptable for women reward only the "recent" experience that these women have acquired prior to joining their current employer.[20]

The regression results also indicate that the sex-label of an occupation significantly affects the wages of this group of women. All other things being equal, a woman in a typically female occupation (such as chambermaid) earned almost 20 percent less than her counterpart in a typically male occupation (such as janitor).

Medium skill For women in the intermediate skill jobs the impact of pre-1967 work experience on wages contrasts with that found for women in the lowest skill jobs (see equation 2). That is, controlling for tenure, experience gained prior to 1967 significantly affected wages. Consistent with the results for women in low skill jobs, recent work experience has a greater impact on wages than more remote experience. In this particular skill category, for every year prior to 1967 that a woman worked six or more months her 1972 wage rate increased by 1.0 percent, but for every week she worked between 1968 and 1972 her wage rate increased by one-fifth of 1 percent.

An examination of the occupational variables indicates that for this group both formulations of the sex-segregation argument are appropriate. On the one hand, women in typically female jobs earned

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[19] In the case of the HIGH SKILL group, two dichotomous variables are included--one representing code 7 of the SVP index, and one representing code 8.

[20] It should be emphasized that this proportion relates to the number of typically female occupations and not to the number of women in those occupations.

Table 4.3 Regressions Relating 1972 Average Hourly Earnings to Human Capital Variables, Sex-Type of Occupation, and Control Variables for Women in the LOW, INTERMEDIATE, and HIGH SKILL Categories

Variable	(1) LOW SKILL		(2) MEDIUM SKILL		(3) HIGH SKILL	
	Regression coefficient	t-ratio	Regression coefficient	t-ratio	Regression coefficient	t-ratio
EDUCATION	0.018	2.34**	0.026	3.92**	0.064	9.15**
EVER TRAIN	0.092	2.51**	0.067	2.44**	0.140	3.09**
TENURE	0.011	2.64**	0.008	3.47**	0.008	3.15**
YEARS WORKED	-0.003	-0.94	0.010	5.13**	0.009	3.62**
WEEKS WORKED	0.001	2.55**	0.002	5.06**	0.002	2.89**
FEMOCC	-0.196	-3.66**	-0.095	-3.00**	0.015	0.36
SKILL 3	0.013	0.37	a	a	a	a
SKILL 5	a	a	0.100	3.65**	a	a
SKILL 7	a	a	a	a	0.133	3.57**
SKILL 8	a	a	a	a	0.256	3.49**
Control variables:						
BLACK	-0.044	-0.95	-0.045	-1.03	-0.115	-2.36**
BAD HEALTH	-0.146	-2.80**	0.035	0.85	-0.724	-1.37
PRIVATE	-0.160	-3.39**	-0.076	-2.49**	0.002	0.07
SOUTH	-0.113	-2.57**	-0.054	-2.02*	-0.050	-1.49
SIZE	0.00003	1.66*	0.00006	5.59**	0.00005	3.89**
PART-TIME	-0.155	-3.92**	-0.039	-1.16	-0.103	-2.39**
COLBAR	0.249	5.71**	0.101	3.48**	0.159	3.91**
CONSTANT	5.204	44.33**	4.801	47.85**	4.277	28.81**
$\bar{R}^2$	0.419		0.362		0.476	
F-ratio	16.69		20.93		30.69	
Number of sample cases	305		492		491	

* Significant at $\alpha \leq .05$, 1-tail test.
** Significant at $\alpha \leq .01$, 1-tail test.
a Variable does not apply to this regression.

9.5 percent less than women in typically male jobs. On the other hand, women who were in those jobs which required over six months of training (SKILL 5) earned 10 percent more than those in occupations which required between three and six months of special preparation (SKILL 4).

High skill As with the earnings of women in the intermediate skill category, the wage rates of those who were in occupations requiring a high-skill level were significantly affected by the amount of general work experience (see equation 3). In addition, the returns to recent work experience were again greater than the returns to experience in the more distant past.

The wages of this group of women were also strongly influenced by the skill requirement of the occupations they held, but an occupation's sex-label appeared to have no significant effect. Among these women, workers in occupations with the highest skill requirement (SVP = 8) earned approximately 26 percent more than those in occupations with the lowest skill requirement (SVP = 6). Controlling for the skill requirement, however, women in typically female occupations did not suffer economic losses relative to their counterparts in typically male occupations.

A Comparison of Skill Categories

The results of the three equations which included skill measures permit several substantive conclusions. First, as initially hypothesized, the return to an additional unit of human capital differed according to the skill requirement of the occupations in which the women were found.

Specifically, the economic returns to one additional year of education were greatest for women in the high-skill category and lowest for women in the low-skill category (6.4 percent, 2.6 percent, and 1.8 percent in the high, medium, and low-skill categories, respectively). Moreover, as shown in Table 4.4, the difference in the average educational attainment of women in the three skill categories is significant. These two findings seem to indicate that women in the low-skill category receive relatively low wages not only because of their relatively low educational attainment, but also because in this skill category of occupations, the returns to additional education are minimal.

The comparative results for the human capital factor, EVER TRAIN, are somewhat mixed. On the one hand, the return to completion of a training program among women in the high skill category is greater than that for women in either of the two lower skill groupings; and as seen in Table 4.4, a significantly greater proportion of women in the high skill category had completed some type of training. On the other hand, the economic return to training among women in the low skill category was greater than that for women in the intermediate skill group.

Finally, as has already been seen, after controlling for tenure, women in the higher two skill groupings were compensated for pre-1967 work experience, but women in the lowest skill groupings were not. Yet

Table 4.4 Means, Standard Deviations and z-Statistics for Selected Human Capital Variables, by Skill Category

Human capital variables	Mean	Standard deviation	z-statistics Difference in means	
			Low and medium skill	Medium and high skill
EDUCATION				
LOW SKILL	9.9	2.4		
MEDIUM SKILL	11.2	2.1	8.13**	12.00**
HIGH SKILL	13.0	2.5		
EVER TRAIN[a]				
LOW SKILL	.458	.499		
MEDIUM SKILL	.674	.469	6.35**	8.41**
HIGH SKILL	.880	.325		
YEARS WORKED				
LOW SKILL	10.8	7.2		
MEDIUM SKILL	11.6	6.7	1.56	.047
HIGH SKILL[b]	11.8	6.6		
WEEKS WORKED				
LOW SKILL	173.0	41.8		
MEDIUM SKILL	183.4	33.9	3.66**	4.50**
HIGH SKILL	191.9	24.5		

** Significant at $\alpha \leq .01$, 1-tail test.

[a] The mean of this dichotomous variable is the probability of ever having completed a training program, i.e., the proportion of women in the skill category who had completed a training course.

[b] The z-statistic for the difference in means between low and high skill is 1.96, which is significant at $\alpha \leq .05$, in a 1-tail test.

as seen in Table 4.4, the difference in the average number of years worked between school and 1967 for women in the low- and the intermediate-skill categories is not significant. For women in the low-skill category there was a significant pay-off to recent experience; as shown in Table 4.4 these women had, on the average, significantly fewer weeks of employment between 1968 and 1972 than the women in the next highest skill category.

A comparison of the results for the three skill categories also sheds light on the differential wage-effects of an occupation's sex-label and its skill requirement. An occupation's sex-label had the greatest negative impact on the wages of women in the low-skill stratum (-19.6 percent). In the intermediate-skill grouping an occupation's sex-label also had a negative impact, but here (all other things being equal) women in typically female jobs earned only 9.5 percent less than women in typically male jobs. In the high-skill stratum, the sex-label of an occupation had no significant impact on wages.

An examination of the effects of specific skill level on wages within each skill grouping indicates first that within the low-skill stratum an occupation's skill requirement (SVP) had no effect on wages. In contrast, within the intermediate and high skill strata an occupation's skill requirement was significantly related to wages. Moreover, as shown in Table 4.5, it is only for the high skill stratum that an occupation's sex-label is negatively correlated with its skill requirement. Within this category of occupations the probability is high that women in stereotypically female occupations will also be in those which require relatively few skills. The skill formulation of the sex-segregation argument is clearly more appropriate for this group of women workers.[21]

Table 4.5 Simple Correlations among Education, Skill Requirement and Sex-Label, by Skill Category

	EDUCATION	FEMOCC
	LOW SKILL	
FEMOCC	.08	--
SKILL 3	.18	.11
	MEDIUM SKILL	
FEMOCC	.37	--
SKILL 5	.39	.43
	HIGH SKILL	
FEMOCC	.17	--
SKILL 7, 8	.39	-.45

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[21] See also Malkiel and Malkiel (1973).

IV CONCLUSION

By examining the determinants of women's wages, this chapter has attempted to clarify several issues. The first matter discussed was the likely importance to women's earnings of previously accumulated human capital, particularly work experience. In this context it was posited initially that occupations vary in the level of skills they require of their incumbents, and therefore can be expected to vary in the rewards they offer for a worker's accumulated human capital. By implication then, women's wages would be adversely affected by discontinuities in their work histories only if they were in occupations which require a relatively high level of skill.

The second issue discussed at the outset of the chapter was the impact of sex-stereotyping of occupations on women's earnings. In this context it was argued that because "women's" jobs may require fewer skills than "men's" jobs, and for this reason offer lower wages, the true (i.e., net) effect of an occupation's sex-label could only be ascertained after controlling for its skill requirement.

Thus, a major theme of the chapter is that clarification of the impact on wages of both factors--work experience and sex-stereotyping--necessitates a consideration of differences among occupations in the skill level they require of their incumbents. A second theme is that for a given occupational skill level, the relative importance to wages of human capital factors and occupational sex-typing can only be ascertained through a simultaneous consideration of both.

The empirical section has provided some support to both of these points. It has been shown that the relative importance of work experience to wages depends upon the skill requirement of the occupation which a woman holds. Specifically, controlling for the effects of tenure, one-third of the occupations typically open to women reward only the most recent work experience. It has also been found that explicit differentiation must be made between the skill requirement of an occupation and its sex-label, for the impact of sex-typing varies according to the skill requirement category in which occupations are found.

Taken in combination, these results have implications for attempts to reduce the male-female wage differential. It does appear that as long as women do not participate in the labor force continuously their wages will to some extent be lower than those of men. However, this does not imply that government actions to improve women's relative income position would be futile. Public policies which encourage the movement of women into either typically male occupations, higher skill occupations, or both, will have a significant impact on their earnings.

APPENDIX TO CHAPTER IV

CONSTRUCTION OF THE SKILL-REQUIREMENT AND SEX-TYPING VARIABLES

The Skill-Requirement Variable

The measure of skill requirement is the index of "Specific Vocation Preparation" found in the *Supplement to the Dictionary of Occupational Titles* (3rd edition), 1966. In the *Dictionary* one of the nine SVP codes listed below is assigned to every six-digit occupation. For our purposes the six-digit occupations were first classified into their appropriate three-digit Census category (1960 classification scheme) using the conversion tables found in U.S. Department of Labor (1970). Each three-digit category was then assigned the modal SVP code among its constituent six-digit occupations.

Specific Vocational Preparation Codes

SVP	Description
1	Short demonstration only*
2	Anything beyond short demonstration up to and including 30 days
3	Over 30 days up to and including 3 months
4	Over 3 months up to and including 6 months
5	Over 6 months up to and including 1 year
6	Over 1 year up to and including 2 years
7	Over 2 years up to and including 4 years
8	Over 4 years up to and including 10 years
9	Over 10 years*

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*Because no women in the universe used for the regressions fell into this category, the code is not included in the empirical analysis.

The Sex-Typing Variable

It should be noted first that while researchers in the area of occupational segregation generally agree that the majority of jobs can be categorized as stereotypically female or stereotypically male, no consensus has been reached on an operational definition of either. For example, while one author implicitly defined a female occupation as one in which 70 percent or more of the incumbents were women (Oppenheimer, 1973), others have used 32.8 percent (the proportion of the labor force which was female in 1960) as the criterion, (Roderick and Davis, 1974). Finally, Bergmann (1973) defined a "female" occupation in 1960 as one in which at least 45 percent of the incumbents were women. At that time women constituted 32 percent of the labor force.

In this study the variable representing the sex-typing of an occupation was constructed by using the proportion of the labor force in 1970 which was female (38.1 percent) as the reference point. Any occupation in 1970 in which at least 43.1 percent (38.1 + 5 percent) of the incumbents were women is defined as a typical occupation for women. (This category contains 66 of the 295 three-digit Census occupations, using the 1960 occupational definitions and excluding the armed forces.) Any occupation in which 33.1 percent (38.1 - 5 percent) or fewer of the incumbents were women is defined as an atypical occupation. The residual category contains 11 occupations, i.e., those in which women represent 33.2 to 43.0 percent of the workers. These occupations are considered to be neither stereotypically female nor stereotypically male, and are excluded from the analysis.

The 1970 data on the occupational distribution of women were put into the 1960 Census classification scheme because the occupational data from the National Longitudinal Surveys are coded according to the 1960 definitions. The computations were based on data of the experienced civilian labor force found in Table 1 in U.S. Department of Commerce (1973). Figures for each occupation have been reclassified into 1960 occupational classifications according to the distributions found in Priebe, Heinkel, and Greene (1972).

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CHAPTER V

PATTERNS OF CHILD CARE UTILIZATION AMONG WOMEN WITH PRESCHOOL CHILDREN

Richard L. Shortlidge, Jr.*

While there are numerous studies of child care in the United States, few have examined patterns of child care utilization with a multivariate statistical framework.[1] In this chapter two adult-oriented child care issues are explored in detail. They are adult-oriented in the sense that they relate either specifically to the child care requirements of women who work outside the home or to those of women who are not in the labor force, but would like to seek employment outside the home.[2] The two issues may be stated as questions. First, what characteristics explain why some mothers seek child care outside the family while others rely on family sources? Second, to what extent would the availability of free day care centers encourage mothers with preschool children to enter the labor force?

These questions are treated sequentially in the sections that follow, utilizing a group of women who had at least one child three to five years of age in either 1967 or 1971. The process of arriving at this particular universe is worthy of elaboration, for it may serve as a guide to future research on this subject. Historically, child care research has concentrated on mothers of children under six years of age, without paying careful attention to potentially important and significant child-age demarcations within this group. The author's preliminary analysis using the National Longitudinal Surveys suggested that choice of a child care arrangement was contingent on whether or not the children under six were less than three or between three and five. Even more important was the behavior of other factors in the model. That is, the effects of the other independent variables were dependent on whether or not the woman was making an arrangement for an infant or a preschooler. This finding led to the stratification of women with children under six years of age into two groups: those with only children under three years and all others. However, because of the limited number of women in our sample who had a child under three years in 1967 and 1971, the results for this group are not presented in this chapter. The author hopes that future studies of child care, using a broader data source, will attempt to explore in greater depth the effects of the child's age on child care choice.

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[1] See Jusenius and Shortlidge (1975); Keyserling (1972); Lajewski (1959); Low and Spindler (1968); Shortlidge, Waite, and Suter (1974); and Westinghouse Learning Corporation and Westat Research Incorporated (1971). For the only other multivariate analysis which specifically examines the determinants of child care choice, see Duncan and Hill (1975).

[2] The distinction between adult-centered and child-centered needs is an important one from the standpoint of legislation and its fiscal requirements. The failure to unify the position of those who advocate child care as a "work related right" and those who advocate it as a "child's right" to an early educational experience historically has been an important weakness in efforts to achieve a national commitment to child care. For various historical descriptions of this conflict see Bourne, Medrich, Steadwell, and Burr (1971); Dill (1973); Guggenheimer (1973); Hagen (1973); Kerr (1973); and Miller (1975).

I THE DETERMINANTS OF NONFAMILY CHILD CARE UTILIZATION

Although there are many means of providing care for children during the day, for analytical purposes these were classified into two general types: care by family members and care by persons outside the immediate family. It should be noted that this distinction is not the same as between methods that involve a direct cost and those that do not, since arrangements made with family members often involve direct monetary outlays.[3] The dependent variable in this section assumes the value of 1 if the preschool-aged child is cared for by a person other than a relative; otherwise its value is 0.[4]

The analysis proceeds as follows. First, a model is proposed and estimated separately using 1967 and 1971 cross-sections of employed women with at least one child three to five years of age. For ease of presentation, the explanatory variables are grouped into five general categories: family composition, mother's labor market behavior and attitudes, ability to pay for child care, personal tastes and preferences, and residential and environmental characteristics. Second, in order to determine if the characteristics affecting choice of a nonfamily child care arrangement were stable over time, the 1967 and 1971 parameters are tested for equality.

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[3] See the discussion under "Ability to Pay" for the proportions paying and average amount paid for child care in 1971 by women with a child three to five years of age.

[4] Nonfamily forms of care include: nonrelative in the child's home or in someone else's home; a nonrelative-relative combination; public day care center; private day care center; public or private day care combined with some other form of care; and enrollment in a school sponsored prekindergarten or kindergarten program. The data understate enrollment in school sponsored prekindergarten or kindergarten programs, since the respondent would not have mentioned them unless she thought of such school programs as "child care arrangements." In addition, it was possible to identify children enrolled in preschool programs if the mother responded that she worked only while the child was in school.

Explanatory Variables

Family composition The decision to leave a preschool child in a setting other than his or her home, or to bring someone outside the immediate family in to look after the child while the mother works is contingent on (1) the availability of other family members to care for the child and (2) whether the arrangement must also cover an infant son or daughter. Several variables are included to measure these effects. First, it is hypothesized that the probability of relying upon an arrangement other than the immediate family is negatively related to the presence of a teenaged son or daughter in the household.[5] Second, it is hypothesized that selection of a nonfamily arrangement is inversely related to having an adult relative, other than husband, living in the household.[6] Third, it is hypothesized that women who were not married were more likely to seek child care arrangements outside the family, because of the absence of the child's father as a potential child care source.[7] Fourth, if the family has an infant child in addition to the preschooler, the special needs of the infant and the complexity or difficulty of finding an arrangement that might include both children is expected to favor choice of family forms of child care.[8]

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[5] The effect of a teenaged child is measured by a dichotomous variable which takes the value of 1 if there is a son or daughter of the respondent who is 14 to 17 years of age living at home and 0 otherwise.

[6] The presence of an adult relative is measured by a 1-0 variable which assumes the value of 1 if there is a son, a daughter or some other relative excluding the husband who is 18 or older residing in the household. A study by Duncan and Hill (1975) used a measure of whether the woman's family moved in the previous year as a proxy for the availability of relatives living in the community. Although a similar variable could have been used here, it was rejected because the relation between migration and the presence of relative in the community is, at best, ambiguous.

[7] In 1971, fathers accounted for 16 and 13 percent of the child care arrangements made by white and black two-parent families, respectively. The absence of the husband is measured by a dichotomous variable which assumes the value of 1 if the woman's marital status is other than married and living in the same household as her husband and 0 otherwise.

Mother's labor market behavior and attitudes Previous studies have indicated that family arrangements are often made for fewer hours during the day than arrangements involving the use of outsiders.[9] Therefore, it is hypothesized that mothers employed part time will be less likely to rely upon nonfamily arrangements.[10] Attitudes toward market work may also influence selection of an arrangement for a preschool child. It is hypothesized that women with more favorable attitudes toward the propriety of mothers working outside the home will be more likely to arrange a nonfamily means for the care of their preschool children.[11]

Family's ability to pay Child care arrangements made with individuals outside the immediate family are likely to involve a higher direct cost than arrangements made within the family. In 1971, 89 percent of working mothers in the sample who made nonfamily arrangements, but only 36 percent of those relying on family members, were required to pay for the services. Moreover, the average payment in the former case was $.50 per hour that the mother worked, as compared to the average payment of $.33 per hour to relatives. Thus, if nonfamily arrangements are a normal good, a family's use of them, all else being equal, will be a direct function of its income. It is therefore hypothesized that both per capita family earnings, excluding the mother's wage and salary income, and the mother's average hourly earnings will be directly related to selection of a nonfamily child care arrangement.[12]

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[8] The effect of an infant child in addition to the preschooler is measured by a 0-1 variable which is assigned the value of 1 if the respondent also has a child under three living in the household and 0 otherwise.

[9] Low and Spindler (1968); Westinghouse and Westat (1971).

[10] A woman is defined as being employed part time if she usually worked less than 35 hours a week in her 1967 and 1971 survey week job.

[11] For the method of measuring attitude toward market work, see Glossary, Appendix B. This variable in the 1971 cross-section is based upon the respondent's answers in the 1972 survey. The questions were administered only in 1967 and 1972.

[12] Per capita earnings are used to control for the effect of family size on a family's ability to purchase nonfamily child care. Earnings are used rather than income because of the high nonresponse rate on the questions dealing with income from personal or family assets.

Tastes and preferences Two variables are included as measures of a woman's taste for child care arrangements outside the family--education and race. Recent time budget studies have suggested that a mother's education is positively related to the number of hours she spends in the care of both infants and preschoolers.[13] Furthermore, economic analyses of fertility suggest that the commonly found negative relationship between the number of children ever borne by women and education reflects the positive relationship between "child quality" and education.[14] That is, families substitute "child quality" for "child quantity" as the educational attainment of the mother rises. If parental education and emphasis on the quality of the environment in which children are reared are positively related, it seems reasonable to hypothesize that among women who work outside the home the "qualitative" aspects of a child care arrangement will be valued more the higher the educational level of the mother. The finding of a positive relationship between education and choice of a nonfamily arrangement would suggest that "quality" child care is more likely to be found outside the immediate family, all else being equal. National opinion polls and other studies of child care have shown that blacks are more likely than whites to rely upon day care centers.[15] Since day care centers are included among the set of nonfamily arrangements, it is hypothesized that blacks will be more apt than whites to utilize nonfamily arrangements.

Residential and environmental factors Both population density and region of residence are likely to affect the choice of a child care arrangement. Community size has been found to be positively related to the reliance upon nonfamily child day care arrangements.[16] The availability and proximity of nonrelatives, nursery schools, and day care centers are likely to be greater in areas of concentrated population. To measure the effect of population density, two dummy variables are employed which distinguish those who live in an SMSA or its central city from those who do not. Since utilization of nonfamily child care has been found to vary according to the Census region in which the family lives, two dummy variables for region of residence are included. Other studies, using bivariate analysis, have indicated a greater reliance on care outside the immediate family in both the South and the West as opposed to the Northeast and North Central.[17] Therefore, a positive relationship with the use of nonfamily care is expected for residing either in the South or the West.

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[13] Hill and Stafford (1974); Leibowitz (1974).

[14] DeTray (1973); Gronau (1973); and Michael (1973).

[15] Gallup Opinion Index (August 1969); the Harris Survey Yearbook of Public Opinion (1971); Jusenius and Shortlidge (1975); and Low and Spindler (1968).

[16] Low and Spindler (1968).

[17] Low and Spindler (1968).

Regression Results: 1967[18]

The single most important variable in the decision to utilize child care other than the immediate family in 1967 was the woman's average hourly earnings.[19] The probability of arranging for a child to be cared for by a nonfamily source rose directly with the hourly earnings of the mother. Although of less relative importance, the same direct effect was observed for per capita family earnings. Thus, it would appear that in 1967 it was the earnings of the mother which played a major role in the selection of a child care arrangement.

Of the variables reflecting the availability of family child care substitutes for the mother, only two were found to be significant. The presence of a teenaged son or daughter decreased, and being nonmarried increased, the probability of selecting an arrangement beyond the family. Since other variables such as earnings, education, hours worked, and race are also simultaneously being controlled, it seems reasonable to interpret the coefficient on marital status as measuring the impact of not having the father as a possible child care resource.

Both measures of labor market behavior and attitudes were significant as expected. Mothers who worked part time were less apt than those who worked full time to use nonfamily forms of child care. The direction of causation is, of course, not clear. That is, the decision to work part time may be motivated by the desire to use family care or, having been made on some other basis, may make it easier to make various family arrangements for the care of the children. The more favorable a woman's attitude toward the propriety of mothers working outside the home, the greater the probability of relying on nonfamily modes of child care.

The behavior of the education variable indicates that, even after controlling for the ability to afford various forms of child care, there is a net positive relationship between education and selection of a nonfamily arrangement. Although not statistically significant, the regression coefficients for race and for region of residence suggest the possibility that blacks have a lower (net) probability than whites of using nonfamily child care arrangements and that residents of the South have a greater tendency to do so than those living elsewhere.

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[18] Means and standard deviations are presented in Table 5.1 and the regression results are contained in Table 5.2.

[19] The standardized regression coefficient for average hourly earnings was .19.

Comparison of the 1967 and 1971 Results[20]

Since even a casual comparison of the 1967 and 1971 results indicates major differences between the two years, it is not surprising that a formal statistical test indicates that there are significant differences.[21] It is also noteworthy that in a pooled equation using the data for both years, the dummy variable denoting the survey year was not statistically significant. Thus, while the average probability of relying on care outside the family remained stable at 40 percent between 1967 and 1971 (Table 5.1) there is evidence that the factors associated with the variation in this probability did change. The facts that (1) both the mother's average hourly earnings and the family's per capita earnings were significant in 1967 but nonsignificant in 1971 and (2) that Southern residence was significant in 1971 but not 1967 may mean that national child day care policy has substantially increased the availability of nonfamily child care alternatives to low income families. Whether this has in fact occurred is an important issue which will require further research using a more definitive and comprehensive data source designed specifically to study child care.

It is interesting that the negative relationship between being black and reliance on nonfamily child care that was observed in 1967 had become significant by 1971. Thus, one can assert more confidently that by 1971 black families were less likely than white families to utilize nonfamily forms of child care. Whether this results from differences in tastes between whites and blacks or from inequities in the administration and allocation of government child care resources is not clear and needs to be analyzed in greater depth.[22]

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[20] The results for 1971 are included in Table 5.2, along with those for 1967. Means and standard deviations are included in Table 5.1.

[21] The calculated F-ratio of 2.73 with 15 and 655 degrees of freedom was significant at an ∂ of .005. This F-ratio was computed without removing cases in the sample both years. Whether these cases were removed or included, there was a significant difference between the 1967 and 1971 results.

[22] The major sources of national funding for child day care services between 1967 and 1971 were Title IV of the Social Security Act and Title II-A of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 authorizing Head Start. By fiscal year 1972, federal expenditures alone for child day care services were close to one billion dollars, approximately 140 times the level of expenditures in fiscal 1965. These estimates are derived from an unpublished Department of Health, Education, and Welfare document. It is important to keep in mind that these federal monies were allocated to state agencies for expenditure. Although these expenditures are controlled by federal law and guidelines, it is clear from a recent HEW audit that these guidelines have not been rigidly enforced or adhered to. The various federally funded child care programs are mentioned in Rosenberg and Spindler (1972).

Table 5.1 Means, Standard Deviations, and Hypotheses Associated with the Models of Nonfamily Child Care Choice in 1967 and 1971[a]

Variables[b]	Formats	Model 1967		Model 1971		Hypothesized effects
		Means	Standard deviations	Means	Standard deviations	
Family composition						
Adult relative	Dichotomous	.18	.39	.29	.45	-
Teenaged child	Dichotomous	.35	.48	.48	.50	-
Nonmarried	Dichotomous	.13	.33	.14	.35	+
Both infant and preschooler	Dichotomous	.23	.42	.08	.27	-
Mother's labor market behavior and attitudes						
Attitude toward market work	Continuous	10.87	2.29	11.12	2.16	+
Part-time employment	Dichotomous	.27	.45	.28	.45	-
Family's ability to pay						
Per capita family earnings [exclusive of mother's earnings]	Continuous	1412.96	1321.33	1447.36	1327.40	+
Average hourly earnings	Continuous	1.94	.75	2.52	1.18	+
Tastes and preferences						
Education	Continuous	11.65	2.86	11.58	2.78	?
Black	Dichotomous	.18	.39	.16	.37	+
Residential and environmental factors						
SMSA central city	Dichotomous	.26	.44	.19	.40	+
SMSA noncentral city	Dichotomous	.34	.47	.37	.48	+
South	Dichotomous	.37	.48	.30	.46	+
West	Dichotomous	.16	.37	.23	.42	+
Dependent variable						
Nonfamily child care	Dichotomous	.40	.49	.40	.49	
Number of sample cases		457		228		

[a] The universes for the models consist of black and white women who were employed at the relevant survey date and who had at least one child between three and five years of age in 1967 or 1971.

[b] The variables are defined in the Glossary, Appendix B.

Table 5.2 Regression Results: 1967 and 1971 Nonfamily Child Care Choice Models[a]

Variables	1967		1971	
	Coefficients	t-ratios	Coefficients	t-ratios
Constant	-30.6	-1.97*	0.3	0.01
Family composition				
Adult relative	- 9.4	-1.59	- 7.9	-1.11
Teenaged child	-15.1	-3.10**	-19.5	-2.85**
Nonmarried	20.2	2.79**	15.4	1.55
Both infant and preschooler	2.9	0.55	- 4.7	-0.39
Mother's labor market behavior and attitudes				
Attitude toward market work	2.2	2.24*	2.5	1.64*
Part-time employment	- 8.3	-1.67*	10.4	1.49
Family's ability to pay				
Per capita family earnings [exclusive of mother's earnings] [coef. x 10^{-3}]	3.4	1.89*	- 3.1	-1.09
Average hourly earnings [coef. x 10^{-2}]	12.4	3.73**	- 0.2	-0.06
Tastes and preferences				
Education[b]	1.9	2.13*	0.7	.57
Black	- 9.6	-1.49	-17.0	-1.67*
Residential and environmental factors				
SMSA central city	2.3	0.42	9.1	1.06
SMSA noncentral city	- 0.9	-0.17	7.4	1.01
South	8.1	1.60	33.2	4.13**
West	3.4	0.54	17.3	2.16*
$\bar{R}^2$	.157		.114	
F-ratio	7.07		3.08	
Number of sample cases	457		228	

continued on next page.

Table 5.2 continued.

* Significant at $\alpha \leq .05$, 1-tail test, unless otherwise indicated.
** Significant at $\alpha \leq .01$, 1-tail test, unless otherwise indicated.
a The universes for the models consist of black and white women who were employed at the relevant survey date and had at least one child between three and five years of age in 1967 or 1971.
b Two-tail significance test used for this variable.

II THE EXTENT TO WHICH FREE DAY CARE CENTERS WOULD ENCOURAGE SEARCH FOR WORK

The negative relationship between female labor force participation and the presence of young children is well documented.[23] This relationship is often used as prima facie evidence of the need for day care centers.[24] However, the extent to which women with young children would respond to such a program by entering the labor force is an empirical question. It was with this thought in mind that women with children who were out of the labor force in the 1971 survey week were asked about their willingness to seek employment if a free day care center were available to them.[25] By examining in some detail the determinants of an affirmative response to this question, one gains an estimate, albeit a crude one, of the possible labor supply impact of a national program of free day care centers.

A Model of the Labor Supply Response to Free Day Care Centers

The five sets of independent variables are similar but not identical to those used in Section I to analyze the determinants of the use of nonfamily child care arrangements. These are designed to reflect (1) the family's ability to provide for child care by using other family members; (2) the labor market behavior and attitudes of the mother; (3) the effect of income on labor supply; (4) the mother's tastes and preferences; and (5) regional and residential differences in employment opportunities. The variables included in each of these categories, along with their expected relationships, are described below. The dependent variable is a dichotomy which assumes the value of 1 if the mother stated unconditionally that she would look for employment if provided with a free day care center and a value of 0 otherwise. The data are restricted to mothers with at least one child three to five years of age who were not in the labor force at the 1971 survey date but who had worked at some time during their lives.

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[23] Bowen and Finegan (1969); Cain (1966); Mincer (1962); and Sweet (1973).

[24] Hagen (1973); Keyserling (1972); and National Association for the Education of Young Children (1973).

[25] A related question is the circumstances under which employed mothers who are not currently using center care would prefer to do so, or would be willing to do so if such care were available at a cost no greater than what the woman was currently paying. This question was examined by a multiple regression analysis, using the same independent variables as in Section I. The only variables significantly related to the desire for day care centers were the per capita earnings of the family and the mother's average hourly earnings. In the light of these findings, it is noteworthy that Title XX, which recently replaced Title IV of the Social Security Act, liberalized the eligibility requirements for social services such as child day care. It appears that this amendment represents a step in the direction of meeting the expressed desire for center care among low income families who were not eligible for these services under Title IV.

Family composition Women with potential child care resources within the family such as a teenaged son or daughter, husband, or other adult relative are expected to be less inclined to search for work with the provision of free day care centers. In other words, women with these resources already have potential child care sources, and are thus more likely to be out of the labor force by choice. Since existing day care centers cater primarily to children of preschool age, it is hypothesized that a mother who has both an infant child and a preschooler will be more likely than one with only a preschooler to wish to enter the labor force if day care facilities were made available to her.

Mother's labor market behavior and attitudes A woman's attitude toward market work, her own recent exposure to the labor market, and her expressed interest in taking a job in her local area are factors which are hypothesized to be positively associated with the probability that she will look for work if provided with a free day care center.[26] The more favorable a mother's attitude toward market work, the more likely she was to use nonfamily care in both 1967 and 1971. Therefore, it seems reasonable to expect an analogous relationship to the probability of engaging in market search with the availability of free center care. Similarly, recent work experience is expected to increase the probability that she would enter the labor force with the provision of free center care. Finally, women out of the labor force include both women who wish to work and those who do not. Therefore, the provision of free day care centers would be expected to attract into the labor force a disproportionately greater number of women who have expressed an interest in working outside the home than of those who have not.[27]

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[26] Recent work experience is measured by a 0-1 variable which has the value of 1 if the women worked at any time since the 1969 survey (or the 1968 survey for women not interviewed in 1969). Her expressed interest in working is measured by her response to the question, "If you were offered a job by some employer in this area, do you think you would take it?" She was assigned a value of 1 if she responded affirmatively to this question and 0 otherwise.

[27] This is not to say that mothers who were not interested in taking a job would not enter the labor force if free day-care services were provided, but only that in relative terms they would be less likely to do so. The availability of such centers might well have a demonstration effect and draw women into the labor force. However, the opposite effect is also possible if women were not satisfied with the form that such centers ultimately took.

The "income" effect   The labor supply of women, particularly married women, varies inversely with family income (exclusive of the woman's contribution). Therefore, it is hypothesized that the propensity to search for employment will be negatively related to per capita family earnings.

Tastes and preferences   The measures of tastes and preferences are educational attainment and race. There are two competing hypotheses for the educational variable. Education may be a proxy for the woman's earning potential, which would lead one to expect a positive relationship between propensity to seek work and education. On the other hand, recent empirical evidence suggests that the negative effect of small children on the labor supply of women varies directly with education.[28] That is, the higher the educational attainment of the mother, the less likely she is to be in the labor force if she has small children. Hence, this should be reflected in a negative coefficient for the educational attainment variable. Since national opinion polls indicate that proportionally more blacks than whites report that they would search for work with the provision of day care centers, it is hypothesized that the coefficient of the race variable will be positive.[29]

Employment opportunities   The effect of employment opportunities is measured by two variables. The first is an index which measures the demand for female labor in the local labor market. This variable is expected to be positively related to the likelihood of entering the labor force. The second is a proxy for regional differences in female earnings. Among the Census regions, the Western region appears to offer women a significant earnings advantage.[30] Therefore, it is hypothesized that residing in the West will be positively related to the probability of engaging in market search.

The results[31]   Among women who were out of the labor force in the 1971 survey week and who had at least one child three to five years of age, 18 percent, or slightly more than one in six, expressed an interest in

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[28] Hill and Stafford (1974); Jusenius and Shortlidge (1975); and Leibowitz (1974).

[29] The Harris Survey Yearbook of Public Opinion, 1970 (1971).

[30] Sweet (1973).

[31] Means and standard deviations are shown in Table 5.3. The regression results are presented in Table 5.4.

Table 5.3 Means, Standard Deviations, and Hypotheses Associated with the Likelihood of Searching for Work if a Free Day Care Center Were Available in 1971[a]

Variables[b]	Formats	Means	Standard deviations	Hypothesized effects
Family composition				
Adult relative	Dichotomous	.21	.40	-
Teenaged child	Dichotomous	.42	.49	-
Nonmarried	Dichotomous	.08	.27	+
Both infant and preschooler	Dichotomous	.20	.40	+
Mother's labor market behavior and attitudes				
Worked some since 1969	Dichotomous	.13	.34	+
Interest in working	Dichotomous	.16	.36	+
Attitude toward market work	Continuous	10.36	2.29	+
"Income" effect				
Per capita family earnings	Continuous	2494.79	3274.38	-
Tastes and preferences				
Education	Continuous	11.78	2.51	?
Black	Dichotomous	.10	.30	+
Employment opportunities				
Demand for female labor	Continuous	30.28	5.82	+
West	Dichotomous	.14	.35	+
Dependent variable				
Likelihood of searching	Dichotomous	.18	.38	
Number of sample cases	355			

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[a] The universe for this equation consists of black and white women who were out of the labor force at the 1971 survey date, who had at least one child between three and five years of age, and who had ever worked.

[b] The variables are defined in the Glossary, Appendix B.

Table 5.4 Regression Results: Likelihood of Searching for Work if a Free Day Care Center Were Available in 1971[a]

	Coefficients	t-ratios
Constant	26.2	1.70*
Family composition		
Adult relative	-12.0	-2.47**
Teenaged child	- 2.6	-0.65
Nonmarried	4.2	0.55
Both infant and preschooler	4.1	0.88
Mother's labor market behavior and attitudes		
Worked some since 1969	- 1.2	-0.21
Interest in working	31.5	5.86**
Attitude toward market work	0.7	0.86
"Income" effect		
Per capita family earnings [coef. x 10^{-3}]	- 0.7	-1.13
Tastes and preferences		
Education[b]	- 1.9	-2.41*
Black	24.6	3.74**
Employment opportunities		
Demand for female labor	0.1	0.22
West	13.4	2.51**
$\bar{R}^2$	.202	
F-ratio	8.48	
Number of sample cases	355	

* Significant at $\alpha \leq .05$, 1-tail test unless otherwise indicated.

** Significant at $\alpha \leq .01$, 1-tail test unless otherwise indicated.

[a] The universe for this equation consists of black and white women who were out of the labor force at the 1971 survey date, who had at least one child between three and five years of age, and who had ever worked.

[b] Two-tail significance test used for this variable.

searching for work with the provision of a free day care center.[32] Of the variables reflecting the availability of family child care sources, only the presence of an adult relative in the household was statistically significant, being negatively related to the likelihood of the mother's entrance into the labor force. This finding is consistent with the negative relationship between utilization of nonfamily care and the presence of a teenaged child in 1971 found in Section I of the chapter. Neither recent previous work experience nor attitude toward market work appeared to affect the probability of job search. However, having an expressed interest in engaging in market work was positively associated with the probability of looking for work in the event a free day care center were available.

Both educational attainment and race were significant. The significant negative relationship for educational attainment provides further evidence of a possible negative substitution effect between market and nonmarket work associated with the presence of preschool-aged children. That is, better educated women appear to attach a higher value than less educated women to time spent in the rearing of small children, since earnings foregone vary directly with education. As expected, black women expressed a significantly greater interest than white women in looking for work with the provision of day care centers. Furthermore, women living in the West as opposed to other regions of the country expressed a significantly higher interest in engaging in job search. It thus appears that free day care centers are more likely to pull women into the labor force if favorable employment terms such as higher earnings exist.

III SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

An important finding of this research--which resulted in the decision to restrict the analysis to mothers of children between the ages of three and five--is the apparent interaction between variables affecting child care choice and the age of the child for whom the arrangement is being made. In light of that interaction, restriction of the universe was essential because there were simply too few mothers of infants to allow confident estimates of regression coefficients for that group.[33]

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[32] These findings are supported by the results of recent experimental programs using various child care subsidy schemes combined with some form of a negative income tax. See Ditmore and Prosser (1973). Further evidence from Feldmans' study (1972) in central New York state indicates that the absence of child care is not a major constraint on the labor force participation of low income mothers.

[33] This statement obviously casts some doubt on the validity of the conclusion regarding the existence of an interaction effect. However, it is the author's opinion that the issue is of sufficient policy importance to warrant additional statistical analysis using a sample of mothers large enough to examine both the effect of the child's age and race on choice of child care. Until this is done, the finding of age interaction remains tentative.

The availability of other family members within the household reduced both the probability that a working mother arranged for care outside the immediate family while she worked and the probability that a nonworking mother would be induced to enter the labor force by the existence of a free day care center. Although a favorable attitude toward the propriety of mothers working outside the home was positively associated with selection of nonfamily modes of child care in both 1967 and 1971, it was not related to the probability of searching for work with the provision of free center care.

In 1967, per capita family earnings excluding the wage and salary income of the respondent, the respondent's average hourly earnings, and her educational attainment were positively associated with reliance on nonfamily child care. However, by 1971 these variables were nonsignificant. These results coupled with the growth in regional disparities in the use of nonfamily child care between the South and West and other regions of the U.S. suggest a fundamental change in the factors explaining variability in the use of different forms of child care. The 1967 to 1971 period was characterized by a rapid expansion in the number of programs and federal expenditures for child care services. These expenditures were largely directed at low income families, and could be spent on care either in the home or outside the home.[34] Thus, the dramatic expansion in child care services to the poor may well account for the absence of significant variability in the earnings variables by 1971.

The analysis of the probable labor supply impact of free center care indicated that approximately one out of every six mothers who were out of the labor force and had at least one preschool child, would search for employment if free center care were available. Among the factors related to the probability of looking for employment with free center care, the most important was having a predisposition to seek employment. In other words, a policy such as free day care centers would have its greatest impact on women who were only "marginally" out of the labor force. In addition, the effect would be more pronounced among blacks than among whites and in areas with favorable employment opportunities for women.

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[34] However, the federal rules governing the allocation of these monies did specify that certain "qualitative" requirements as outlined by the Federal Interagency Day Care Requirements be met if care were provided by a member other than the immediate family. These requirements were generally ignored by state welfare agencies. Little effort was made by regional federal officials to check compliance with the federal legislation. The emphasis was primarily on the quantity of services made available to low income families rather than its quality. These remarks are based upon an unpublished HEW audit of federal child care expenditures.

The child care issues discussed and analyzed in this chapter have dealt with patterns of child care utilization among employed mothers and the potential impact of free center care on the labor supply of mothers with preschool children. Although a number of child care issues has been presented, it must be kept in mind that they represent only a portion of the total set of policy questions relating to child care. The analysis has addressed issues which reflect the needs of women who either worked outside the home or wanted to work outside the home, but has ignored the important issues related to the educational and developmental needs of young children. To treat them as separate issues is convenient from the standpoint of data analysis, but artificial both from the standpoint of national policy and the family decision making process. That is, a mother's decision to work is influenced by the child care alternatives available to her. She and her family take into account not only the costs of the various arrangements among which she might choose but also the likely impact of a potential mode of child care on the child's own happiness and well-being.

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CHAPTER VI

THE ECONOMICS OF FAMILY MIGRATION

Steven H. Sandell*

In this chapter an economic model is developed to explain the decision of families to migrate and the effect of migration on the labor market earnings of men and women. The basic tenet of the model is that family utility, (defined operationally as the labor market earnings of the husband and wife, the wife's leisure, and the husband's leisure) is maximized. The model suggests that the labor market involvement of the wife is a significant consideration in a (husband-wife) family's decision to migrate.

The data from the National Longitudinal Surveys are well suited for empirical testing of the model. The Surveys provide the opportunity to examine the change in labor market earnings of families and individuals over a five-year period. The availability of data on migratory status as well as on other personal characteristics of women and their families permits the direct testing of the model.

The finding that although family labor market earnings of migrants increase faster than nonmigrant families' earnings, the earnings of migrant wives increase slower than the earnings of nonmigrant wives is consistent with the model. There is evidence that the improvement in the husband's earnings associated with geographic mobility is greater than the earnings loss suffered by the wife, making the decision to migrate rational from the point of view of the family unit. The negative relationship between the wife's employment prior to the move and the likelihood of family migration supports the main implication of the model.

The chapter is organized in the following manner. Section I reviews previous research on geographic mobility that considers female migration either explicitly or indirectly while examining male migration. In Section II a family utility maximization model is used to derive implications with regard to the probability of migration by the family and the effect of migration on individual and family earnings. In Section III these implications are tested using multiple regression analysis of data for women who were 35 to 49 years of age in 1972. The implications of the empirical estimates for the economic welfare of women and for interpreting the observed earnings distribution are discussed in Section IV.

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I SURVEY OF THE LITERATURE

> Woman is a greater migrant than man. This may surprise those who associate women with domestic life, but the figures of the census clearly prove it.[1]

In spite of this early statement by Ravenstein, the separate study of geographic mobility among women has been virtually ignored by students of migration. The reason is straightforward: married women are assumed to migrate because their husbands migrate.[2]

Lansing and Mueller, for example, virtually ignored women in their large-scale study of geographic mobility. The omission is based on "the general finding that migration rates are in general similar for the sexes. Ordinarily husband and wife migrate together. It is that fact which has made it possible to focus attention on the mobility of heads of families in the present study."[3] Gallaway, in comparing the earnings of migrant men and women to the earnings of their nonmobile counterparts using Social Security data from 1957-1960, found that "white female mobility flows are uniquely different from those for men and the most obvious hypothesis for explaining this would be that of 'tied' movement among women."[4]

Some researchers, however, have analyzed migration rates of men according to their marital status and, where applicable, the employment status of their wives. A search of the existing literature reveals only relatively simple tabular analyses and no explicit modeling.[5] This literature has been written mainly by demographers and sociologists.

Ann Miller found that women interstate migrants had lower subsequent labor force participation than male interstate migrants and, after differences in marital status composition for each age group are removed,

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[1] Ravenstein (1885), p. 196.

[2] For nonmarried women who move, application of male migration models is presumably appropriate.

[3] Lansing and Mueller (1967), p. 40. (In their appendix the authors report a regression equation [dependent variable: family moved in the year before the survey] where the coefficient for the variable "wife is working" has the expected negative sign and a t-value of 1.34).

[4] Gallaway (1969), p. 57.

[5] Becker (1974, p. 1007), however, writing about social interaction, illustrates a more general argument about decision making of the head of household with the following statement: "For example he would not move to another city if his spouse's or children's income would be decreased by more than his own income would be increased."

"white females who were interstate migrants were less likely to be in the labor force than the average."[6] Unfortunately, Miller could not obtain migration data cross-classified by marital and labor force status simultaneously, so her evidence is only indirect. Also, as Masnick (1968) pointed out, she used labor force status after the migration period rather than at the outset, so inferences about the cause of the migration could be misleading.

Using data from the 1970 Census, Larry Long (1974) found that men whose wives worked in 1965 were less likely to have made long distance (interstate) moves between 1965 and 1970 than men whose wives were not employed in 1965. He also found that the likelihood of a wife dropping out of the labor force was increased by a long-distance move. Since certain factors (e.g., husband's education) that may influence the probability of migration may also be related to labor force participation of the wife, Long's simple tabular analysis is only suggestive and not conclusive.

While it is undoubtedly true that most migration involves family units and that the migration of husband and wife occurs jointly, the possibility that the wife's welfare is considered in the family's decision to migrate should not be ruled out. It is at least desirable to study the effect of migration on women's earnings and to test the hypothesis that the wife's employment is considered in the decision to migrate. These are the objectives of this chapter.

II A THEORY OF FAMILY MIGRATION

The Model

In our development of a two-location, work-leisure choice model nonpecuniary benefits from working or living in either location are ignored. The family is assumed to attempt to maximize its utility, which is posited to depend on total family income, the wife's leisure and the husband's leisure. Total family income is a function of the wage rates of husband and wife and the amount of labor each offers.[7] The present model differs from the standard labor supply model in that the family is allowed to migrate, thereby changing husband's and wife's wage rates. If the family does migrate, moving costs are subtracted from total family income.

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[6] Miller (1966), p. 61.

[7] We make the simplifying assumption that family income consists of only the labor market earnings of the husband and wife. Inclusion of nonlabor income or labor market earnings of other family members would not change the conclusions.

The choice of residence depends not only on the wage rates obtainable by the husband and wife but also on their tastes for market work. A high potential wage for the wife in a new location would not provide an incentive for the family to migrate if the wife would not choose to work at that wage. Hence, for families where the wife would not work at any conceivable wage, the decision to migrate becomes a function of the husband's labor market opportunities only. If the wife is willing to work at certain wage rates (the husband's wage is also a determinant of the number of hours the wife offers to the labor market), then her labor market opportunities become a consideration in the family's location choice.

The greater utility achieved in the new location for the migrant family can be associated with a change in its labor supply. Thus the new set of wage rates available to the migrant family can lead to increased income and the same amount of leisure, increased leisure at the same level of income, increased leisure which more than compensates for reduced family income, or increased family income which more than compensates for reduced leisure. It is also possible for the total family labor supply to remain unchanged while the wife and husband change their individual hours of work in response to the new market wages.[8]

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[8] In more formal terms, the model may be represented by the four equations shown below. Equation 1 sets forth the determinants of family utility. The time and budget constraints depicted by equations 2a, 2b, and 3 are similar to those generally employed in the conventional theory of labor supply. Equation 4 indicates the possibility of the family's changing its budget constraint through migration.

$$U = U(L_w, L_h, Y_f) \tag{1}$$

$$D_w + L_w = \overline{T}_w \tag{2a}$$

$$D_h + L_h = \overline{T}_h \tag{2b}$$

$$Y_f = Y_w + Y_h = W_w D_w + W_h D_h \tag{3}$$

$$Y'_f = Y'_w + Y'_h - M = W'_w D'_w + W'_h D'_h - M \tag{4}$$

where: U = family utility

L_w = the wife's leisure (including non-market work)

L_h = the husband's leisure

Y_f = total family (labor market) earnings

D_w = the wife's labor supply

As a consequence of migration, the family faces a new set of temporary and permanent market prices on which it bases its behavior. Since there are costs to job switching, and since job search often requires flexible hours, newly migrant women might refuse low-paying jobs that would be immediately available in order first to search the new labor market extensively. In addition, the increased value the family places on the wife's time in setting up the new household might initially keep her out of the labor force. Hence, we would expect to observe higher unemployment rates and lower labor force participation among new migrants than among other married women.

Fertility plans, by differentiating the costs associated with moving among families, can affect migratory behavior. If the wife were planning to drop out of the labor force irrespective of the decision to move, the cost to the family of setting up a household in a new location is reduced and there is a greater likelihood of migration. On the other hand, if as a result of migration the wife's wage rate is decreased or the husband's wage rate is increased, then she may decide to work fewer hours (or not at all) and revise her fertility plans.

The model can be extended to consider explicitly the welfare of children and other family members. Family migration may impose a cost on children through interruption of schooling. In order to minimize this cost, inter-city migration is likely to be timed to occur during the summer months when schools are not in session. Families with school-aged children are less likely to move than otherwise similar families.

D_h = the husband's labor supply

$\bar{T}_w$ = the wife's total available time (a constant)

$\bar{T}_h$ = the husband's total available time (a constant)

Y_w = the wife's (labor market) earnings

Y_h = the husband's (labor market) earnings

W_w = the wife's wage rate

W_h = the husband's wage rate

M = moving costs

Y'_f, Y'_w, Y'_h, D'_w, D'_h, W'_w, W'_h, L'_w, L'_h are the respective variables after migration has taken place.

Search Behavior, the Wife's Employment, and Geographic Mobility

In terms of the foregoing model, the employment position of the wife will influence the family's migration behavior only if it affects the likelihood that the family's utility will increase by changing residence. This influence can be indirect, affecting job search behavior that precedes or coincides with migration.

The model presented describes the family migration decision when the labor market options in a distant labor market are known. It is useful to extend the model to incorporate rational search behavior for the family. Following McCall (1970) and Gronau (1971), geographic job search will occur if the expected return to that search exceeds its cost.

In a family context, the reduction in the earnings of a spouse is a cost of migration. Since this reduction is potentially quite large for the husband, it often does not pay for the wife to search for a job in a distant area until the husband has obtained satisfactory employment there. Hence, given the low market wage opportunities for many married women, their husbands' employment will preclude their initiation of job search outside of the area of current residence.[9] Likewise, potential reduction in the wife's earnings is considered by the husband to be a cost of a geographical job change on his part and will constrain both his search behavior and actual family migration.

The wife's working makes one type of job search extremely costly for the husband: moving first then searching for a job on arrival at the destination. Husbands whose wives are working are likely to devote relatively more resources to local than distant labor market search compared to husbands who are the sole family breadwinners. The latter, *ceteris paribus*, are then more likely to obtain acceptable job offers in distant regions.

If rational job search procedures are followed, the probability of an improvement in total earned income as the result of migration is lower for a two-wage-earner family than for a family with only one person in the labor market. Consider, for instance, a geographic change that would increase the present value of husband's earnings by $1,000, where the moving costs are $500. Suppose there are two otherwise similar families, one where the loss (or change) of the wife's job will result in a decrease in the present value of her earnings of $600 and one where the wife does not work (hence, no dollar net loss). It is obvious that the move would be worthwhile for the family with the wife out of the labor force but not for the family with the working wife. Hence, consideration of the wife's labor market earnings in this example makes one family's migration unlikely, and the other family's migration probable.[10]

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[9] The smaller the amount of distant job search a spouse engages in, the lower is the likelihood that person will exert a positive influence on the decision to move. Stigler (1962) has shown that the optimal amount of job search is positively related to the amount of time expected to be spent on the job in the future. Since the average expected labor force participation for married women is less than that of married men, husbands will, on average, conduct more search than their wives. Our explanation of search behavior of two-labor-market-participant families is based on the existing male-female earnings distribution and on the labor force participation pattern of married women. If their expected period of labor force participation increases, married women will more likely initiate geographical job search.

Since it is reasonable to assume that the wife will search for a job in a different geographic area only after the husband first receives a job offer in that area, the likelihood that the wife's labor market opportunities will have a *positive* influence on the decision to migrate is minimal.[11] Hence, we would expect to observe, *ceteris paribus*, less geographic movement among families where both husband and wife are working and expect to remain in the labor market than among other families.[12]

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[10] Net migration has taken place from low wage areas to high wage areas. However, if an individual often can find a job in a low wage area that pays more than the one he presently has, some migration will be in the opposite direction. If the wage offers to males and females are positively correlated, we would expect families with both husband and wife working to be more likely than other migrant families to move from low to high wage areas.

[11] It is possible for the wife, faced with a different budget constraint, to reduce her labor supply in the new location. That is, given the wage rate she could earn and the increased earnings of her husband, the family places a higher value on her time than the market does so she increases her leisure or nonmarket work and reduces her hours of work. While this action lowers a cost of moving, it cannot be considered an incentive to migrate. It is clear from the text that a reduction in the wage offered the wife (*ceteris paribus*) can only be a deterrent to migration. Hence, the only remaining influence on both migration and the wife's labor supply is the change in the husband's earnings. The increased utility from the wife's changed labor supply behavior is an effect of the husband's increased earnings and not by itself sufficient incentive for family migration.

[12] Studies of male migration (see Bowles [1970], Schwartz [1968], and Sjaastad [1962]) have shown that age and education affect the likelihood of migration. These factors are ignored in the model presented in order to concentrate on the effect of the wife's employment.

Family Income and the Migration Decision

In this section a model of the migration decision is presented based on the assumption that the family's objective is to maximize total family income. Let the present value of the family's earnings stream be equal to the sum of the present value of the labor market earnings of the husband plus the present value of the labor market earnings of the wife.[13]

If a family acts rationally and decides to move, it must expect the present value of the returns to migration to exceed the cost of migration. That is, the expected earnings stream after migration must be greater than the expected earnings without migration. For the household with two persons willing to work it is not possible to say anything about the income stream of either spouse *separately* without additional information. Maximization of family earnings implies that the sum of the two persons' income streams must increase. This can happen if both increase *or* if the increase in the income stream of one spouse is greater than the reduction of the income stream of the other (plus the cost of moving).

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[13] Formally, this can be represented as:

$$(5a) \quad \sum_{t=1}^{t=R} Y_{ft} (1 + i)^{-t} = \sum_{t=1}^{t=R} Y_{wt} (1 + i)^{-t} + \sum_{t=1}^{t=R} Y_{ht} (1 + i)^{-t}$$

or

$$(5b) \quad F = W + H$$

where: Y_{ft} = family's earnings in year t (without migration)

$Y_{wt}(Y_{ht})$ = the wife's (husband's) earnings in year t

i = rate of discount

R = year of retirement; R_w, (R_h) is the year of retirement for the wife (husband)

F, W, H = the present value of family, the wife's and the husband's lifetime earnings (without migration)

M = the present value of the moving cost

Y'_{ft}, Y'_{wt}, Y'_{ht} = earnings after migration

Y', W', and H' = the present value of earnings after migration.

The motivation for a family's migration could be due solely to improvement of the husband's earnings if the negative effect on the earnings of the wife is offset by the husband's improvement.[14]

The model immediately yields a testable hypothesis: Migrant families expect their total labor market earnings stream after migration to be greater than their expected earnings would have been without migration. Assuming that expectations are fulfilled (in the aggregate), and using earnings in a single year as a proxy for the earnings stream, the hypothesis can be tested with the NIS data. When relevant personal and labor market characteristics are controlled, it is hypothesized that the increase in labor market earnings of migrant families (between a year before and after migration) should be greater than the increase for nonmigrant families.[15] For married women the relevant earnings figure is the sum of their own plus their husband's labor market earnings while for single women only their own earnings are relevant.

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[14] Excluding nonpecuniary cost and returns, all of this can be stated in the following terms:

$$F' - M > F. \tag{6}$$

If moving costs are positive and the family moves, (6) implies:

$$H' + W' > H + W \tag{7a}$$

if both husband and wife are willing to work

$$H' > H \tag{7b}$$

if only the husband is in the labor market

$$W' > W \tag{7c}$$

for the household with only the wife in the labor market.

While this model is developed for husband-wife families, it can be used to analyze the migration of single women or single men since their behavior would be identical to that of husband-wife families where only one person worked.

[15] Factors other than migration (e.g., level of education and age) affect the change in a person's earnings. Theoretical explanations of the effects of these variables can be found in Becker (1964).

II EMPIRICAL RESULTS

In this section, hypotheses developed from the model of family migration are subjected to empirical tests. These involve two aspects of migration: the determinants of migration and the effect of the geographic movement on family and individual earnings.

The Likelihood of Migration

The dependent variable used in the regression analyses is a dummy variable with the value "1" if the family is migratory and the value "0" otherwise.[16] A family is considered to have migrated if the respondent reports that her county or SMSA of residence is different in at least one survey year (1968, 1969, 1971, and 1972) than it was in 1967.[17]

The probability of a family's moving depends on labor-market-related personal characteristics of each labor force participant. If migration is looked at as an investment, it is clear that the incentive to move should decrease with age, since the length of time for the person to reap benefits from moving decreases and the psychic costs of moving probably increase with age. Since the geographic scope of the labor market is likely to be larger for the highly educated than for the less educated, migration is expected to be positively related to education.[18] The presence of school-aged children is expected to inhibit family migration.

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[16] Because of econometric problems associated with estimation when the dependent variable can only take the values "0 or 1," (Theil [1971], pp. 632-633) logit analysis has also been used. The dependent variable was converted to the natural logarithm of the relative probability of migrating (i.e., $\ln \frac{P}{1-P}$. These results, which yield the same conclusions as the ordinary least squares regressions, are shown in Appendix Tables 6A-1 and 6A-2.

[17] Approximately 11 percent (248) of the families of white married women (same spouse present all survey years) are defined as migrants under this definition. Between 1968 and 1971, (the only period to which data on distance moved is available), 68 percent of the migrants moved more than 100 miles and 81 percent moved more than 50 miles. Seventy-eight percent of the 1967-1971 migrants were living in the same Census division in 1971 as in 1967. Since attrition from the sample during the later years of the survey has occurred when respondents moved without leaving a forwarding address, our estimates probably understate the magnitude of family migration.

[18] Bowles (1970) and Schwartz (1968) explain the positive correlation between migration rates and educational level by hypothesizing that those with more education have better access to labor market information for distant regions.

For our purposes, however, the variables alluded to above may be considered to be control variables; our chief interest lies in examining the effect of the wife's labor force commitment on the migration decision. Since it has been shown that a family is probably less likely to improve its economic position by migration if two persons rather than one are working, the likelihood that a family will move is expected to be inversely related to the labor force commitment of the wife. Thus, the crucial coefficients are those for (1) the dummy variable for employment status, 1967 and (2) tenure with 1967 employer.

The regression results for white women are presented in Table 6.1.[19] The regression coefficients exhibit the expected signs. The significant (at the 1 percent level, one-tail test) negative signs of the regression coefficients for these variables when used separately in the equations confirm our hypothesis. That is, the families of women who work are less likely to move than are families of other married women, and the likelihood of migration decreases the longer they have worked for their 1967 employer.

When the only independent variable in the regression equation is employment status, its regression coefficient can be interpreted as the gross effect of working on the probability of family migration. The respective net effects of employment status and tenure on family migration are the coefficients of these variables in those equations where the husband's age and education are also included as independent variables. The positive differential between the gross and net effect of the wife's labor force participation on migration is an indication of the correlation of some of the other independent variables with both the dependent variable (migration) and the employment status of the wife. In particular, greater educational attainment of the husband is associated both with lower labor force participation of the wife and with a higher probability of mobility for the family.

Table 6.2 is constructed by using the information from equation (4) for a (white) family with the sample's husbands' mean education (12.0 years) and husbands' mean age (40.4 years). We find that the likelihood of family migration between 1967 and 1972 is 14.0 percent if there were no children in the household and the wife did not work in 1967; the likelihood is only 4.5 percent if there were school-aged children present and the wife's 1967 job tenure was 10 years. Not only does family migration vary inversely with the wife's employment status, but this inverse relationship is stronger the longer she has worked at her job (bottoming out at 14 years).

The Effect of Migration on Earnings of Husband-Wife Families

The coefficient of the dummy variable representing migration status in a regression equation where the dependent variable is change in family's

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[19] The small number of black migrants in our sample precluded a separate analysis for this group.

Table 6.1 Regression Results: The Determinants of Family Migration[a]

(t-ratios in parentheses)

Variable	Equation (1)	Equation (2)	Equation (3)	Equation (4)	Mean	Standard deviation
Constant	.120 (14.48)***	.095 (1.67)**	.119 (16.28)***	.090 (1.58)*		
Employed wife, 1967 (dummy)	-.0356 (- 2.20)**	-.0283 (-2.20)**			.41	.49
Husband's age, 1967		.00264 (-2.45)**		.00240 (-2.22)**	40.4	6.0
Husband's education, 1967		.0122 (6.02)**		.0123 (6.05)***	12.0	3.2
Children aged 6-18 (dummy)		-.0217 (-1.25)		-.0262 (-1.51)*	.84	.37
Wife's job tenure, 1967			-.0111 (-2.87)***	-.0107 (-2.77)***	1.99	4.29
Wife's tenure squared			.000359 (1.62)*	.000383 (1.74)**	22.4	75.0
$\bar{R}^2$	.003	.023	.006	.026		
F-ratio	7.6	15.0	7.8	13.5		
Number of sample cases	2,322	2,322	2,322	2,322	2,322	2,332

* Significant at $\alpha \leq .10$, 1-tail test.
** Significant at $\alpha \leq .05$, 1-tail test.
*** Significant at $\alpha \leq .01$, 1-tail test.

[a] The universe consists of married white respondents whose spouses were present in all survey years. The dependent variable is a dummy variable with the value of "1" if the respondent reports that her SMSA or county of residence in 1967 was different than her residence in 1968, 1969, 1971, 1972 and "0" otherwise.

(husband plus wife) or husband's labor market earnings represents the change in earnings associated with migration. By controlling for personal characteristics (i.e., age and education) and base year earnings it is possible to isolate the net effect of migration on earnings.[20] By comparing the estimates of migration coefficients for change in family's earnings with those for change in husband's earnings, it is possible to estimate the effect of migration on the wife's earnings. Table 6.3 shows the regression results when change in husband's earnings and change in family earnings between 1966 and 1971 are the dependent variables.[21]

Table 6.2 Probability of Family Migration, 1967 to 1972, by Wife's Job Tenure and Presence of School-Aged Children

(Percent)

Presence of children, aged 16-18 in family / Wife's tenure at 1967 job	No children aged 6-18	Any children aged 6-18
0 Years	14.0	11.4
5 Years	9.6	7.0
10 Years	7.1	4.5

Source: Calculated on the basis of regression coefficients in Equation (4), Table 6.1. For method of calculation, see text.

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[20] To the extent that earnings of migrants prior to their move are larger than those of nonmigrants, the observed earnings gain to migrants measured in absolute terms might only reflect equivalent increases in relative terms. Controlling for base year earnings eliminates this ambiguity in the interpretation of the earnings change. The estimates of the effect of migration on earnings, however, are not affected by the inclusion of base year earnings as an independent variable.

[21] There were only six migrants in the sample of 219 black women who reported the information necessary for the earnings analysis. The results for these women are not reported here because of the small sample size.

Table 6.3 Regression Results: Change in Husband's (HI71-66) and Family's (FI71-66) Labor Market Earnings, 1966 to 1971, by Year, Frequency, or Reason for Migration[a]

(t-ratios in parentheses)

Variable	Type of migrant and dependent variable					
	1967-1971 Migrants		Multiple migrants		Intrafirm transfers (1968-1971)	
	DEP= HI71-66	DEP= FI71-66	DEP= HI71-66	DEP= FI71-66	DEP= HI71-66	DEP= FI71-66
Constant	3,162 (3.37)***	3,610 (3.47)***	3,146 (3.36)***	3,596 (3.46)***	3,175 (3.39)***	3,617 (3.48)***
Husband's education	156 (3.87)***	255 (5.76)***	163 (4.07)***	259 (5.91)***	163 (4.07)***	259 (5.90)***
Husband's age, 1967	-69.7 (-3.58)***	-63.1 (-2.90)***	-69.3 (-3.57)***	-63.0 (-2.89)***	-69.7 (-3.59)***	-62.9 (-2.89)**
Migration dummy	1,174 (2.93)***	952 (2.14)***	5,054 (3.69)**	3,945 (2.59)***	2,436 (3.05)***	2,125 (2.40)***
Husband's earnings, 1966	.103 (2.90)***		.101 (2.85)***		.098 (2.74)***	
Family earnings, 1966		.017 (0.47)		.018 (0.47)		.013 (0.36)
$\bar{R}^2$	.063	.057	.067	.059	.064	.059
F-ratio	18.7	17.1	20.0	17.6	18.9	17.4
Number of sample cases	1,055	1,055	1,055	1,055	1,055	1,055

* Significant at α ≤ .10, 1-tail test.

** Significant at α ≤ .05, 1-tail test

*** Significant at α ≤ .01, 1-tail test.

[a] Universe consists of married white respondents whose spouses were present in all survey years and who had lived in 1967 SMSA or county of residence for at least two years. For means and standard deviations of the variables, see Appendix Table 6A-3.

The control variables in the regression equation are worthy of some discussion. The negative coefficient for husband's age (experience) and the positive coefficient for the variable reflecting the number of years of education are consistent with the theory of human capital. Since the dependent variable is change in earnings we are, in effect, examining an experience/earnings profile. Since theory suggests that investment in on-the-job training is positively associated with education and negatively associated with age, it is expected that younger individuals and more educated individuals will exhibit, *ceteris paribus*, faster earnings growth than their older or less educated counterparts. Thus our finding using the panel data is consistent with the cross-sectional results of other researchers.[22]

Table 6.4 shows the net effect of migration between 1966 and 1971 on the labor market earnings of the husband and on the combined labor market earnings of the husband and wife. The earnings of migrant husbands increased more than those of nonmigrant husbands, and family earnings of migrants increased more than those of nonmigrant families. The difference between these two figures, obtained from regressions using the same sample, implies that the earnings of nonmigrant wives went up faster than those of migrant wives. For example, the coefficient 952 indicates that the total labor market earnings per year of a migrant family grew $952 more than an average nonmigrant family between 1966 and 1971. While on average the migrant husband's earnings grew by $1,174 more than the earnings of a nonmigrant husband, a migrant wife's yearly earnings grew $222 *less* than those of a nonmigrant wife. That is, although migration seems to lead to an improvement in the earnings of the family unit, implying that the move is economically rational, the earnings position of the wife deteriorates as a result of the move.

The results (see Table 6.4) show that for families that moved *more than once* between 1967 and 1971 (multiple migrants) and for those families that moved because the husband received an *intrafirm transfer* between 1968 and 1971, labor market earnings grew substantially faster than the earnings of other migrant families. The reason for the above-average gain can be traced to the improvement in the earnings of the husbands, since the wives in these groups fared worse than the wives of all other migrants.

To provide some insight into the source of the earnings loss to migrant wives, we regressed the change in the number of weeks worked by the wife on the migration dummy variables and the number of weeks she worked in 1966 (Table 6.5). The statistically significant negative coefficients for the migration dummies in these equations indicate that the slower growth

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[22] Since, as we have seen in the likelihood-of-migration equations, the probability of migration is positively associated with education and negatively associated with age, the omission of age and education from the change-in-earnings equation would lead to overstatement of the returns to migration.

Table 6.4 Difference in Growth of Migrants' and Nonmigrants' Annual Earnings between 1966 and 1971

Group Year, frequency, or reason for migration	Family's earnings (dollars per year)	Husband's earnings (dollars per year)	Wife's earnings (dollars per year)
1967-1971 Migrants	952	1,174	- 222
Multiple migrants	3,992	5,120	-1,128
Intrafirm transfers (1968-1971)	2,149	2,490	- 341

Source: Calculated on the basis of regression coefficients in Table 6.3.

Table 6.5 Regression Results: Change in Weeks Worked by Wife, 1966 to 1971, by Year, Frequency, or Reason for Migration[a,b]

(t-ratios in parentheses)

Variable	1967-1971 Migrants	1969-1971 Migrants	Multiple migrants	Intrafirm transfer (1968-1971)
Constant	14.77	14.66	14.45	14.44
	(17.77)***	(17.97)***	(17.76)***	(17.68)***
Weeks worked, 1966	- .446	- .446	- .447	- .446
	(-16.21)***	(-16.25)***	(-16.23)***	(-16.17)***
Migration dummy	- 5.80	-12.09	-16.17	- 6.69
	(- 2.47)***	(- 3.17)***	(- 1.99)**	(- 1.42)*
$\bar{R}^2$	.201	.204	.200	.198
F-ratio	134	136	132	131
Number of sample cases	1,055	1,055	1,055	1,055

* Significant at $\alpha \leq .10$, 1-tail test.

** Significant at $\alpha \leq .05$, 1-tail test.

*** Significant at $\alpha \leq .01$, 1-tail test.

a See Table 6.3, footnote a.

in the earnings of migrant as compared to nonmigrant wives is in part due to reduced market work. An examination of the change in weeks worked for 1969-1971 migrants shows that the difference in weeks worked between migrants and nonmigrants narrows with the passage of time. This implies that the initial reduced work effort represents a cost of migration for the wife rather than a change in taste for work. It seems to be advantageous for the family if the migrant wife temporarily foregoes market work in order to set up the new household as well as to search for a more desirable job.[23]

Marital Status and the Effect of Migration on Women's Earnings and Labor Supply

A clear implication of the model is that migration will occur for single women (all one-person families) only if the move is expected to lead to an increase in utility. Since this condition does not necessarily hold for married women (or any individual members of multi-person households), we would expect to observe, on average, a greater increase in the personal welfare due to migration for single than for married women. While own earnings may not be a good proxy for welfare for all married women, change in earnings may be regarded as a first approximation to change in welfare for those women who desire to work full-time. Hence, changes in earnings and in weeks worked of migratory women who worked more than 1,400 hours in 1966 have been analyzed, using a sample containing both married (spouse present) and never married women. Although we found that single migrants fared much better than married migrants in terms of changes in earnings, in part due to their greater number of weeks worked after migration, there were only ten single women in the sample who migrated between 1967 and 1971. Hence, the empirical support for the model was not statistically significant and is not reproduced here.

III CONCLUSIONS

The empirical results are consistent with the theory. On the one hand, the labor market orientation of the wife seems to be taken into consideration in the decision of a family to migrate. On the other hand, the migration of the family increases the earnings of the husband and decreases (relative to what it would have been) the labor market earnings of the wife. In contrast, the earnings of never-married women increase after moving. Since family earnings have been shown to increase as a result of migration, the decision to migrate is rational from the viewpoint of the family.

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[23] An examination of the weeks unemployed for migrant wives for the survey periods close to the time migration took place seems to indicate that most of the reduced work effort is due to withdrawal from the labor force rather than job search.

The data are consistent with the hypothesis that the contribution of the wife to family income is considered, but that the positive effect of migration on husband's earnings outweighs the negative effect of migration on the wife's earnings. If the participation of women in the labor force continues to increase, this may have a limiting effect on the geographic mobility of the male labor force. Moreover, to the extent that female employment becomes less casual and women develop greater attachment to their jobs (i.e., there is more firm-specific training and concomitant earnings premiums), this effect could be intensified.

This study documents the often harmful effects of migration on the earnings of married women. This is not to say that migration is involuntary for them in the usual sense, but to emphasize that what is beneficial to the welfare of the family (and the wife as a family member and consumer of family income) is nevertheless consistent with lower labor market earnings of the wife. The interruption of women's careers is often an effect of migration and the maximization of the utility of the family unit. We have uncovered no evidence that the labor market earnings of the husband are a more important consideration than those of the wife. Our data only tell us that, given the jobs held by men and those held by women, the earnings improvement for men resulting from geographic movement is large enough to offset their wives' loss in market earnings. Furthermore, there is some evidence that the wives' loss in market earnings is only a temporary phenomenon due in part to reduced market work in the period immediately following the move.

Finally, it seems that we have shown an additional reason for differences in the earnings of men and women. Family decision making often restricts the wife's choice of job and reduces her continuity of employment. An employer's awareness of the possibility of her leaving her current residence and, hence, her current job in spite of pay premiums which would make this job the best available to her, will be likely to lower his investment in her human capital. Even if on average the tenure of males in particular firms is no greater than that of females, the lack of influence of differential salary payments on the behavior of some married women employees might rationally lead employers to treat female and male employees differently. On the other hand, if the woman's geographic mobility is restricted by the permanence of her husband's job, the employer is able to discriminate and pay her lower wages than she could be receiving at an alternative job (in a different geographic area).

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CHAPTER VII

VOLUNTARY JOB CHANGING

Herbert S. Parnes and Gilbert Nestel*

Labor mobility--the movement of workers among jobs--is a process that imparts flexibility to the utilization of human resources at the same time that it contributes to the pursuit of individual self interest. Conventional economic theory assumes that workers make voluntary job changes in response to differentials in "net economic advantage," especially wage differentials. To the extent that wage differentials signify the relative social importance of different jobs as measured by the market, when workers move in the direction of higher paying jobs they are at the same time increasing their contribution to the social product.

Interest in labor mobility, then, stems both from a desire to examine the allocative efficiency of the labor market and from a concern for the degree to which the labor market actually serves the interests of the individual. In this paper our focus is on several aspects of the voluntary interfirm mobility of women in their thirties and forties. The paper is divided into four major sections. In Section I a conceptual framework for the empirical work is presented. Section II contains an analysis of the propensity of women to make job changes. A question contained in the 1972 interview schedule was designed to permit this kind of analysis: "Suppose someone in this area offered you a job in the same line of work you are in now. How much would the new job have to pay for you to be willing to take it?" Each respondent's answer was related to her current average hourly earnings, yielding a measure of the degree of attachment of the woman to her current employer or, what amounts to the same thing, her propensity to respond to more attractive alternatives elsewhere. The analysis will be directed at identifying the factors associated with variation in propensity to change jobs.

The third section of the paper analyzes the factors related to the likelihood of an actual voluntary job change between 1969 and 1971 among women who were employed in both years.[1] The fourth section is devoted to

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[*] We are grateful for the competent research assistance of Randall H. King, Malcolm C. Rich, and Shu-O Yang.

[1] It is not possible to examine voluntary job changes over the entire five-year period covered by the surveys, since it was not until the 1969 interview schedule that voluntary and involuntary job separations were differentiated. Thus, the alternatives were to examine job changes between 1969 and 1971, between 1969 and 1972, or between 1971 and 1972. The

an examination of the consequences of voluntary interfirm job changes over the same two-year period in respect to earnings and job satisfaction. The purpose, in other words, is to ascertain whether voluntary movement appears to produce higher earnings and/or greater job satisfaction. In each case the voluntary movers will be compared with those who remained in the same jobs and those who were involuntarily separated from their 1969 jobs. In the final section of the chapter, the findings are summarized.

I CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK AND METHOD OF ANALYSIS

There is some ambiguity in the use of the term "labor mobility." In much of the economic literature on the theory of labor allocation and wage determination, mobility refers to the propensity of workers to respond to perceived differentials in economic advantage. On the other hand, since measures of propensity are very uncommon, the term "mobility" is also frequently used to refer to the actual movement of workers among jobs. In order to avoid this confusion, we shall use the term mobility consistently to refer to actual job changing. The term "mobility propensity" will be used to refer to the receptivity of an individual to alternative job opportunities. The likelihood that a woman will make a voluntary interfirm job change may be viewed as a resultant of her *propensity* to make such a move and her *opportunities* for doing so.[2] In the remainder of this section we discuss in turn each of these determinants of mobility.

Propensity to Move

The readiness of an employed woman to exchange her current job for a higher paying job in the same line of work may be thought of as being influenced by the relation between a set of her own personal characteristics on the one hand and the characteristics of her job on the other. To begin with, the interaction between the terms and conditions of her employment and her value hierarchy produces a level of *satisfaction* with her job that is hypothesized to be inversely related to her propensity to leave it. That is, the more positive the woman's attitude toward her job, the greater the psychic costs of a separation. However, although job satisfaction is related to propensity to move, the latter is not exclusively a funtion of the former. Characteristics of the worker and of the work situation can

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1969-1971 option was chosen in order to maximize the comparability of the data with a similar set of data for middle-aged men (Parnes and Nestel, 1974). It also has the advantage of permitting a measure of unemployment experience in the period following the job change.

[2] A number of comparable formulations have been suggested both by labor economists and by organizational theorists. See, for example, Stoikov and Raimon (1968); Parker and Burton (1967); March and Simon (1958), Chapter 4.

combine to produce different propensities to move for workers with the same degree of satisfaction. For instance, a woman who places a high premium on security may be unwilling to sacrifice her seniority despite dissatisfaction with her job on other grounds, while an equally dissatified worker who is less concerned with security may have fewer reservations about leaving.

Propensity to move is expected to be inversely related to tenure in current job for both economic and psychological reasons. Long service provides a degree of protection against layoffs as well as advantages relating to such fringe benefits as vacation allowances and pension rights. In addition, it is reasonable to believe that the social and psychological bonds to a particular work place become stronger with the passage of time. Age is expected to inhibit the propensity to move because of the shorter payoff period for the new job as age increases, and also because the risks associated with a change probably increase with age as the result of typical employer hiring preferences.[3] Marital and family status may also influence the propensity of women to change jobs. It seems likely, for example, that the constraints imposed by marital and familial obligations have an inhibiting effect on the propensity to move in response to wage differentials. In other words, factors like location and work schedule may loom larger than wage considerations in the labor market decisions of married women, especially those with young children. Finally, we introduce into the analysis the race of the respondent not because we are prepared to offer an hypothesis relating to this variable, but simply to ascertain whether there are racial variations in propensity to change jobs.

Opportunities for Movement

The propensity factors outlined above are relevant to the analysis presented in the following section of the paper. However, the likelihood of an actual voluntary job change depends, in addition, on factors affecting the opportunities for movement. These, in turn, are related to labor market conditions and to the characteristics of the worker that measure the extent of her knowledge of alternative opportunities, her initiative and vigor in seeking them out, and her attractiveness to other employers.[4] Our data permit us to develop only a few measures of opportunity for movement. Two of these--age and race--are variables that have already been discussed in the context of propensity to move. In the context of opportunities, age and being black are expected to bear an inverse relationship to the opportunity for movement because of the typical hiring preferences of employers.[5]

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[3] It might appear at first thought that this factor would not be relevant in the present situation, since the respondent is reacting to a job which she presumably can have. However, since there is no assurance that she will be able to keep the new job, especially in view of the low seniority she will have, it is logical for the woman to take into account the availability of alternatives--and this is influenced by her age.

[4] Cf. March and Simon (1958), pp. 100-106. In the March and Simon formulation, it is the perceived ease of movement rather than the objective opportunities for movement that are referred to.

In addition to these two variables that are conceptually linked to both propensity and opportunity, there are two variables reflecting opportunities alone that we expect to be related to the likelihood of voluntary movement. One of these is a measure of the relative attractiveness of the respondent to other employers; specifically, women whose educational attainment is below average for their occupational category are expected to be relatively less attractive to other employers and therefore less likely to make voluntary job shifts, other things being equal. Second, the likelihood of a voluntary job change is hypothesized to be negatively related to a woman's position in the wage structure, since workers whose hourly earnings are below average for their occupational category are, other things equal, more likely to encounter jobs with positive wage differentials than those whose current wage rates are average or above.[6]

Method of Analysis

The hypotheses outlined above are tested in the following sections by means of Multiple Classification Analysis (MCA).[7] As has been indicated, our measure of propensity to change jobs is based upon responses to an hypothetical job offer. The dependent variable is the likelihood that a respondent reports a willingness to change jobs for some specified wage rate.[8] The MCA technique allows one to calculate for each category of a particular explanatory variable what the proportion of women with a propensity to change jobs would have been had the members of the category been "average" in terms of all the other variables in the analysis. Differences in these "adjusted" proportions among the various categories of a given variable may be interpreted as indicating the "pure" (net) effect of that variable on the propensity to change jobs, controlling for all the other variables in the analysis.

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[5] It is possible, on the other hand, that affirmative action programs have actually increased the relative job opportunities of black women.

[6] There are clearly additional factors that are related to opportunities in the labor market, but our data base does not permit the development of adequate measures of them. The most obvious of these is the local area unemployment rate. There is abundant evidence that voluntary labor turnover is related to the level of economic activity, and one would therefore expect the likelihood of a voluntary interfirm shift to be inversely related to the level of unemployment in the local area in which the respondent lives. However, when the local area unemployment rate was included as a variable in the analysis, there was no systematic relationship between the level of unemployment and the mobility rate. The same was true, incidentally, in our earlier study based on the NLS data for middle-aged men. We suspect that these results are attributable to the high sampling error in our measure of unemployment. See Parnes and Nestel (1975), p. 103.

[7] Multiple classification analysis is identical to the more commonly used multiple regression analysis with all of the explanatory variables expressed in categorical form, which avoids the assumption of linearity. The constant term in the multiple classification equation is the mean of the dependent variable. The coefficient of each category of every explanatory variable represents a deviation from this mean.

For the analysis of the determinants of an actual job change, the dependent variable is the likelihood of a woman's having made a voluntary change of employer between the interview dates in 1969 and 1971. Since the criterion of a job change is serving with different employers at those two times, it should be noted that a woman who left her 1969 employer but returned prior to the 1971 interview would be treated as not having made a change. By the same token, it is possible for an individual to have made more than one change of employer during the period, in which case the criterion for classifying the move as voluntary or involuntary is the reason for separating from the earliest employer.

In all the analyses, attention is confined to women employed as wage and salary workers. Moreover, because of the tenuous nature of the employer-employee relationship in many of the jobs in agriculture and domestic service, women in those employment categories have been excluded. Finally, we have run separate MCA's for women employed full time and those employed part time. Because there is generally little difference between these two groups in the way in which the explanatory variables are related to the dependent variables, we have pooled them and have introduced an hours-of-work variable in the pooled MCA's. Only the pooled results are shown in the text tables, but the separate MCA results for the full-time and part-time workers are presented in the statistical appendix to the volume.

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[8] In other words, responses to the hypothetical job offer question are dichotomized and coded in dummy variable form (1 = willingness to change jobs for some specified wage rate, 0 = unwillingness to change for any specified wage rate). We also have experimented with this variable expressed in continuous form, but the results have been less satisfactory. It should be observed that an unwillingness to move except at a very high wage rate, or indeed even a reported unwillingness to move at any wage rate, does not necessarily signify "uneconomic" or "irrational" behavior. Even if one accepts the hedonistic calculus that underlies conventional economic theory, a wage differential should produce a willingness to move only if its expected present value is large enough to exceed the (discounted) costs of moving, the latter including psychic as well as economic costs. While this admittedly seems to suggest that there will always be some wage that would justify a move, a categorically negative response to the question may be interpreted to mean simply that the respondent believes that no wage rate likely to be encountered would be sufficient to compensate the costs of movement.

II PROPENSITY TO CHANGE JOBS

Overall, slightly more than three-fifths of the women who were employed as wage and salary earners in 1972 indicated a willingness to accept an alternative job in the same line of work at a higher wage than they were currently receiving (Table 7.1).[9] Black women manifest a greater propensity to be mobile than white women.[10] Even after adjusting for the other factors included in the analysis, the difference in the proportions of blacks and whites with a propensity to change jobs is 9 percentage points. Contrary to expectations, the propensity of women to change jobs does not vary significantly by age, at least within the 15-year range represented by the present sample. Those in their late 40's are every bit as likely as those 10 years younger to be willing to move to higher paying jobs in the same line of work.

As anticipated, women who are not currently married and who have no children living with them have a higher propensity to change jobs than women who are living with husbands and/or children under age 18. It has been commonly recognized that the domestic obligations of married women inhibit their geographic mobility and thus limit their ability to maximize their positions in the labor market. The present finding suggests that a comparable effect operates even within the confines of a single local labor market. That is, women living with their husbands and/or children appear to be more likely than women without such family responsibilities to have constraints on the kinds and locations of jobs they are willing to take and are thus less likely to be responsive to wage differentials. The significant difference in mobility propensity between part-time and full-time workers is perhaps another manifestation of the same point. Almost two-thirds of the full-time workers in contrast to slightly over half of those working part-time express a willingness to change jobs. Part-time jobs are more likely than full-time jobs to be those which, by virtue of their location and/or scheduled hours, meet the particular requirements of married women.

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[9] Appendix Tables 7A-1a and 7A-1b contain comparable data for women who were employed full-time and those who were employed part-time, respectively.

[10] We originally stratified the MCA by race. When the application of a Chow test revealed no statistically significant difference between blacks and whites in the slopes of the explanatory variables, we simply introduced race as a variable in analyzing the pooled data.

Table 7.1 Unadjusted and Adjusted[a] Proportions of Respondents[b] with Propensity to Change Jobs, by Selected Characteristics, 1972

MCA results (F-ratios in parentheses)

Characteristic	Number of respondents	Unadjusted percent	Adjusted percent[a]
Total sample (10.67**)			
$R^2 = 0.072$	1,865	61.5	61.5
Age (0.94)			
35-39	596	60.8	59.6
40-44	605	61.5	61.3
45-49	664	62.1	63.2
Race (6.41*)			
White	1,361	60.3	60.5
Black	504	70.9	69.4
Family status (4.00**)			
MSP, child(ren) under 18	962	61.0	61.2
Non-MSP, child(ren) under 18	252	66.1	62.8
MSP, no child(ren) under 18	373	55.3	56.3
Non-MSP, no child(ren) under 18	278	68.8	69.3
Hours in 1972 job[c] (14.22**)			
Full-time	1,437	64.0	64.7
Part-time	413	54.1	52.0
Job satisfaction[c] (18.69**)			
Likes job very much	1,065	54.4	54.9
Likes job somewhat	681	69.9	69.6
Dislikes job	115	81.2	78.3
Tenure in 1972 job (15.85**)			
Less than 1 year	139	70.1	71.7
1-5 years	518	69.2	70.3
6-9 years	537	62.8	63.1
10-14 years	316	55.5	54.7
15 years or more	355	49.5	47.4

*Significant at $\alpha \le .05$.

**Significant at $\alpha \le .01$.

a Adjusted for the effects of all the variables shown in the stub of the table. For method of adjustment, see text.

b Analysis confined to respondents employed as nonagricultural and nondomestic wage and salary earners in 1972.

There is clear evidence of the hypothesized relationship between the degree of satisfaction a woman finds in her job and her willingness to consider an alternative. Among those who profess to like their current job very much, slightly over half manifest a willingness to make a job change for higher wages; among the small minority expressing some degree of dislike for their jobs, the proportion is over three-fourths. There is also a significant relationship between length of service in current job and willingness to trade it for another with higher wages. To illustrate, over seven-tenths of those with less than one year of service manifest a propensity to change jobs, in contrast with less than half of those with 15 or more years of service. Between these two extremes, the decrease in propensity with increasing tenure is perfectly regular.

Comparison with Middle-Aged Men

Employed women in their thirties and forties are apparently more responsive to alternative job opportunities than employed men in their fifties and early sixties. As compared with the approximately three-fifths of the respondents in the present sample, somewhat less than half of the NLS sample of middle-aged men interviewed in 1971 expressed a willingness to change jobs.[11] This, of course, is hardly surprising, for there are good theoretical reasons for expecting an inverse relationship between age and mobility propensity, and there is substantial evidence that actual voluntary mobility rates decline with increasing age.[12]

There are also a few differences between the women and the men in the factors associated with a willingness to change jobs. For example, among the women there is no evidence of the inverse relationship between mobility propensity and age that prevails in the case of middle-aged men. Also, the racial differential in mobility propensity in favor of black women has no counterpart in the case of the males. Nevertheless, the basic factors conditioning the mobility propensities of men and women appear to be the same. In both cases the influence of degree of satisfaction with and tenure in current job is strong.[13]

III THE CORRELATES OF VOLUNTARY JOB CHANGING, 1969 TO 1971

We direct our attention now to the actual job changes made by those women who were employed as wage and salary workers at the times of interview in 1969 and 1971.[14] Our purpose is to ascertain the factors that are related to the likelihood of a voluntary job change, i.e., one initiated by the woman, rather than her employer (Table 7.2).[15] Overall, about one woman in eight who was employed as a wage and salary earner in both 1969 and 1971 had voluntarily changed employers between the two survey dates.[16] This percentage, it may be noted, was two and one-half times as high as the corresponding proportion for men between the ages of 50 and 64.[17]

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[11] Unpublished data for an identically defined universe of the middle-aged men. The calculated percentage is 47.5.

[12] Parnes (1970), pp. 44-45. The women also have shorter tenure than the men, and tenure is inversely related to mobility propensity.

[13] For the comparable data for the men, see Parnes and Nestel (1975), pp. 85-92.

As hypothesized, there is a highly significant inverse relationship between age and mobility, even within the relatively narrow age range of the present sample. Women in their late thirties had a mobility rate of 18 percent as compared with rates of 12 and 10 percent for those in their early and late forties, respectively. This substantial relationship

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[14] To be more precise, the universe under investigation consists of women employed at both dates as wage and salary workers in nonagricultural industries and in occupations other than domestic service, for whom information on mobility status is available.

[15] Tables 7A2a and 7A-2b in Appendix A show the same results separately for women employed full time in both their 1969 and 1971 jobs and for those employed part time in one or both of the jobs.

[16] Analysis of the voluntary mobility of women is complicated by the fact that women, far more frequently than men, make job changes that are incidental to periods of withdrawal from the labor force. Since the criterion of an interfirm move in this study is serving with a different employer in 1971 than in 1969, some of the women categorized as job changers may not have changed jobs directly in order to improve their labor market position but may rather have withdrawn from the labor force for varying periods of time and have been unable to regain their old job upon reentry. In order to examine the effect of such cases on our data, we re-estimated the equation for women who had not absented themselves from the labor force in the period between the two survey dates in 1969 and 1971 for longer than 12 weeks (24 weeks in the case of school teachers since teachers frequently report the summer months as periods out of the labor force). The results of this MCA are shown in Appendix Table 7A-2c. The effect of this restriction of the universe is to reduce the mobility rate from 12.9 to 10.8 percent. Otherwise, the pattern of results is substantially the same as that shown in Table 7.2 except that the difference between women employed full time in both 1969 and 1971 jobs and those employed part time in one or another year becomes less pronounced and loses its statistical significance.

[17] See Parnes and Nestel (1974), p. 100.

Table 7.2 Unadjusted and Adjusted[a] Proportions of Respondents[b] Making Voluntary Job Change, 1969 to 1971, by Selected Characteristics

MCA results (F-ratios in parentheses)

Characteristic	Number of respondents	Unadjusted percent	Adjusted percent[a]
Total sample (5.50**)	1,548	12.9	12.9
$\bar{R}^2 = 0.070$			
Age, 1972 (7.16**)			
35-39	453	19.2	17.7
40-44	499	12.5	12.3
45-49	596	8.8	10.0
Race (2.27)			
White	1,093	13.3	13.4
Black	455	10.0	9.6
Family status, 1969 (0.27)			
MSP, child(ren) under 18	860	14.2	12.6
Non-MSP, child(ren) under 18	237	13.7	12.7
MSP, no child(ren) under 18	236	11.1	14.6
Non-MSP, no child(ren) under 18	215	8.7	12.5
Hours in 1969 job[c] (4.98**)			
Full-time	1,190	10.5	11.6
Part-time	334	20.9	17.6
Job satisfaction, 1969 (10.75**)			
Likes job very much	959	9.7	9.8
Likes job somewhat	458	16.7	17.0
Dislikes job	61	31.5	29.7
NA	70	17.9	15.7
Tenure in 1969 job (9.28**)			
Less than 1 year	172	24.0	24.5
1-5 years	324	17.4	15.1
6-9 years	302	11.2	11.5
10-14 years	262	7.3	8.9
15 years or more	264	2.5	5.0
NA	224	19.6	17.4

continued on next page.

Table 7.2 continued.

Characteristic	Number of respondents	Unadjusted percent	Adjusted percent[a]
Relative educational attainment (1.00)			
Mean minus 2+ years	180	14.7	13.9
Mean minus 1-1.9 years	162	16.9	15.9
Mean ± 0.9 years	721	12.2	12.9
Mean plus 1-1.9 years	186	15.9	15.0
Mean plus 2+ years	150	9.7	9.9
NA	149	10.5	9.4
Relative hourly earnings, 1969 (1.57)			
Mean minus $1.00+/hour	81	17.3	14.1
Mean minus $0.50-$0.99/hour	221	18.6	17.4
Mean ± $0.49/hour	741	13.3	12.1
Mean + $0.50-$0.99/hour	156	9.1	10.6
Mean + $1.00+/hour	106	4.5	8.5
NA	243	11.6	14.5

* Significant at $\alpha \leq .05$.

** Significant at $\alpha \leq .01$.

[a] Adjusted for the effects of all the variables shown in the stub of the table. For method of adjustment, see text.

[b] Analysis confined to respondents employed as nonagricultural and nondomestic wage and salary earners in 1969.

[c] The small number of cases for which information on the variable was not ascertained were included in the analysis but not reported.

between age and actual rates of job changing is of particular interest in view of our earlier finding that the propensity to change jobs shows no such inverse relationship with age. We are led to the conclusion that the declining mobility rates with increasing age among this age category of women is largely attributable to declining opportunities rather than to decreasing propensities as age advances.

Although the difference narrowly misses being statistically significant, the adjusted mobility rate among blacks is lower than that among whites--9.6 percent versus 13.4 percent. The fact that a differential in favor of white women obtains both among full-time and part-time workers (Tables 7A-2a and 2b) suggests that it is probably real rather than being attributable to sampling variation.[18] If so, it has no counterpart among middle-aged men. In the comparable analysis of the mobility of that age group of men, no racial differences were found in mobility rates between 1966 and 1971, between 1969 and 1971, or between 1967 and 1969.[19] The fact that the mobility propensities of black women are significantly higher than those of white women while actual mobility rates vary in the opposite direction suggests that alternative labor market opportunities are more limited for black women than for white women.

It is surprising that there are virtually no differences in mobility rates among women with varying domestic obligations, particularly in view of the fact that the propensity to move has been found to be higher among nonmarried women without children in their households. There is no reason to believe that nonmarried women--other things equal--are less attractive employees than married women; indeed, any difference in this respect between the two groups probably operates in favor of the former. Thus, in view of both their greater propensity and greater opportunity for movement, it is difficult to explain the fact that nonmarried women have no higher rates of actual mobility than married women. The only plausible explanation that has occurred to us--and one that we are unable to check because of the inadequate numbers of movers--is that nonmarried women do indeed make more voluntary job changes that are motivated by career considerations, but that married women make more job changes that are related to their roles as wives and mothers.

Women who were employed part time in one or both of the survey weeks were twice as likely as those employed full time to have made a job change between the survey dates in 1969 and 1971. Even when other factors are controlled, there is a 6-point difference in the adjusted percentages, which is highly significant. In part, this difference is a statistical artifact, since women who change from a full-time to a part-time job or from a part-time to a full-time job are included among the part-time workers, and these kinds of shifts are more likely to occur among women who change employers than among those who do not. In addition, however, since women holding part-time jobs frequently wish to keep them only temporarily, the greater mobility that occurs among part-time workers is hardly surprising. In this context, it is worth noting that when the universe is confined to women with steady labor force participation over the two-year period, the difference between the full-time and part-time workers is no longer statistically significant.[20]

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[18] As in the case of mobility propensity (see footnote 10), a Chow test indicated no statistically significant interaction between race and the other explanatory variables in the analysis of actual mobility. Hence, we present only the pooled results.

[19] Parnes and Nestel (1975), pp. 96-102.

A very pronounced relationship exists between the degree of satisfaction that a woman expressed toward her job in 1969 and the likelihood that she had voluntarily left it by 1971. Respondents who had expressed some dislike for their jobs in 1969 were three times as likely to have left their jobs by 1971 as those who had indicated a high degree of satisfaction. Those who had expressed only moderate satisfaction in 1969 were almost twice as likely to have left as the highly satisfied group. These findings are consistent with those of previous studies, but many of the latter have suffered from the fact that measures of satisfaction were obtained retrospectively after the worker had left the job. The present findings allow us to say with considerable confidence that job satisfaction predicts the likelihood of a voluntary separation.[21]

Consistent with other studies of voluntary mobility, the data in Table 7.2 show a very strong relationship between the length of service that the woman had accumulated in her 1969 job and the likelihood that she would have voluntarily left it by 1971. Among those with less than a year's service in 1969 the mobility rate is five times as high as among those with 15 years or more of service, and between these two extremes the decline in mobility with increasing tenure is monotonic.

The measure of the relative attractiveness of workers to potential employers--the educational attainment of the woman relative to others in her occupational category--turns out not to be significantly related to the likelihood of movement. Indeed, the relationship is not at all systematic, but the lowest mobility rate occurs among those with the highest relative education. We have no adequate explanation for these results. It may be noted that in our earlier study of the factors affecting the mobility of middle-aged men, while the analogous variable narrowly missed being statistically significant, its relationship with the dependent variable was nevertheless regular and in the hypothesized direction.[22]

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[20] See footnote 16 and Appendix Table 7A-2c.

[21] See Porter and Steers (1973), p. 169; Quinn, et al. (1974), p. 24, n. 15.

[22] See Parnes and Nestel (1974), p. 97.

The gross relationship between the average hourly earnings a woman enjoyed in her 1969 job and the likelihood of her having left that job by 1971 is substantially in the expected direction. Women with hourly earnings 50 cents or more below average for their occupational categories had gross mobility rates about four times as high as those whose earnings were $1.00 or more above average. The adjusted data, on the other hand, are not quite so regular and narrowly miss the test of statistical significance. Nonetheless, they seem to provide some support for the generalization that, holding other things constant, women with above average earnings for their occupational category are less likely than those with below-average earnings to make voluntary job changes.

IV THE CONSEQUENCES OF JOB CHANGING

We turn our attention now from the determinants of voluntary job movement to its consequences for the welfare of the job changers. More specifically, the question at which the analysis in this section is directed is whether voluntary job changes during the two-year period under consideration were advantageous to the job changers in terms of average hourly earnings and degree of job satisfaction. To the extent that women move among jobs in order to improve their welfare, one would expect voluntary changes to be reflected in gains in one or both of these aspects of work. Although not central to the major concern of this chapter, we also inquire into the effects of involuntary separations for those women who were successful in finding other jobs.

It is not immediately clear, however, how these questions ought to be explored. For example, during a period in which average money wages are rising it is obviously not sufficient merely to ascertain whether job changers have experienced wage gains, for this would be too "easy" a test. On the other hand, a simple comparison of the current earnings of women who have changed employers with those of women who have not would be plagued by the opposite bias, since we have seen that women with below-average earnings within an occupational category are more likely than others to change jobs. Conceptually, the relevant question is whether the job changers are better off than they would have been had they not changed, and this is a very difficult question to answer with the data at hand.

With respect to earnings, we have chosen to address the question by comparing the percentage increase in hourly earnings of job changers and nonchangers over the period in question, controlling by means of multiple classification analysis for other factors that may influence changes in earnings--viz., race, occupational and geographic mobility, receipt of training, and base-year average hourly earnings. This is tantamount to assuming that the voluntary changers, on average, would have done relatively as well as the nonchangers had they remained where they were. While this is perhaps the most reasonable assumption that one can make, it must be borne in mind that it is not particularly realistic for those who quit because of dissatisfaction with the rate at which their earnings were rising or because they foresaw a layoff. To investigate the effects of mobility on job satisfaction we employ essentially the same model, except that extent of job satisfaction in the base year, rather than base-year earnings is used as a control. The question here is how job changers compare with nonchangers in the proportion who are highly satisfied with their 1971 jobs.

Overall, women who made voluntary job changes between 1969 and 1971 appear to have enjoyed a payoff in terms of average hourly earnings (Table 7.3), although the advantage is confined exclusively to women who were employed part-time in one or both years (Tables 7A-3a and 3b). For the total sample, the (adjusted) increase over the two-year period was 20 percent for those employed in the same job both years, as compared with 26 percent for those who voluntarily changed employers and 14 percent among those whose job changes were involuntary. Among the women employed full time at both survey dates, however, relative increases in hourly earnings were virtually identical among all three categories (Table 7A-3a); in the case of women who worked fewer than 35 hours per week in one or both years, the relative wage increase experienced by the voluntary job changers was almost twice as high as that of women who did not change employers.

On the criterion of job satisfaction (Table 7.4), voluntary job changers did no better than those who remained with the same employer. Almost identical (adjusted) proportions of both these categories were highly satisfied in 1971, controlling for degree of satisfaction in 1969 and other relevant factors. On the other hand, the involuntary job changers were significantly worse off. Only a little more than two-fifths of them expressed a high degree of satisfaction with their 1971 job, in contrast with almost three-fifths of those who had stayed with the same employer.

V SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Six out of ten employed women in their thirties and forties manifest a willingness to change employers for a higher wage rate. As many as an eighth of employed women in that age group actually made a voluntary change of employers over the two-year period 1969-1971. This chapter has explored the factors associated with variations in the propensity to change jobs and in actual movement. It has also addressed the question whether voluntary movement has tended to improve the hourly earnings and the job satisfaction of mobile women.

Propensity to Change Jobs

Although most women in our sample show a disposition to be mobile, there is nevertheless considerable variation in their mobility propensity according to their personal characteristics and circumstances, the degree of satisfaction they express with their current jobs, and how long they have held them. To begin with, there is a difference between black and white women in this respect. Other things equal, blacks are more likely than whites to indicate a willingness to change employers for higher pay.

Table 7.3 Unadjusted and Adjusted[a] Percentage Changes in Average Hourly Earnings, 1969 to 1971, by Comparative Job Status and Selected Other Characteristics[b]

MCA results (F-ratios in parentheses)

Characteristic	Number of respondents	Percent change (unadjusted)	Percent change (adjusted)[a]
Total sample (15.56**)	1,432	20.4	20.4
$\bar{R}^2 = 0.117$			
Comparative job status, 1969-1971 (3.57*)			
Same employer	1,190	19.0	20.0
Voluntary job change	175	31.5	26.0
Involuntary job change	67	15.3	13.8
Race (1.88)			
White	1,010	20.4	20.9
Black	422	20.6	17.0
Comparative occupation category, 1969-1971 (0.67)			
Same 3-digit code	990	19.2	19.9
Different 3-digit code	442	23.0	21.5
Migrant status, 1969-1971[c] (0.75)			
Same SMSA or county	1,392	20.2	20.2
Different SMSA or county	39	27.3	26.5
Training, 1969-1971 (8.51**)			
Some	327	22.3	25.4
None	1,105	19.9	19.0
Average hourly earnings, 1969 (46.25**)			
Less than \$1.50	169	59.8	60.2
\$1.50-\$1.99	372	18.8	18.9
\$2.00-\$2.49	327	19.3	19.6
\$2.50-\$3.24	314	14.9	15.1
\$3.25 or more	250	12.7	11.6
Comparative hours per week usually worked, 1969-1971[c] (0.20)			
Full-time, both years	1,125	18.9	20.1
Part-time in one or both years	303	25.4	21.4

* Significant at $\alpha \leq .05$.

** Significant at $\alpha \leq .01$.

[a] Adjusted for the effects of all the variables shown in the stub of the table.

[b] Universe consists of respondents employed as wage and salary workers in nonagricultural and nondomestic service jobs in the survey weeks of 1969 and 1971.

[c] The small number of cases for which information on the variable was not ascertained were included in the analysis but are not reported.

Table 7.4 Unadjusted and Adjusted[a] Proportions of Respondents[b] Highly Satisfied with their Jobs, 1972, by Comparative Job Status and Selected Other Characteristics

MCA results (F-ratios in parentheses)

Characteristic	Number of respondents	Percent highly satisfied (unadjusted)	Percent highly satisfied (adjusted)[a]
Total sample (15.68**) $\bar{R}^2 = 0.105$	1,381	57.5	57.5
Comparative job status, 1969-1971 (2.97*)			
Same employer	1,152	59.2	58.4
Voluntary job change	167	53.4	57.3
Involuntary job change	62	39.9	43.6
Job satisfaction, 1969 (72.67**)			
Liked job very much	845	68.5	68.0
Other	453	34.0	35.1
NA	83	65.7	65.4
Race (1.36)			
Whites	978	58.5	58.1
Blacks	403	50.7	53.6
Comparative occupation category 1969-1971 (0.01)			
Same 3-digit	950	58.7	57.7
Different 3-digit	431	55.0	57.3
Migrant status, 1969-1971[c] (0.32)			
Same SMSA or county	1,346	57.7	57.6
Different SMSA or county	34	53.7	55.8
Training, 1969-1971 (5.04*)			
Same	335	65.2	62.5
None	1,046	55.1	56.0
Comparative hours per week usually worked, 1969-1971[c] (0.47)			
Full-time, both years	1,072	57.9	57.8
Part-time in one or both years	287	55.6	56.2

* Significant at $\alpha \le .05$.

** Significant at $\alpha \le .01$.

[a] Adjusted for the effects of all the variables shown in the stub of the table. For method of adjustment, see text.

[b] Universe consists of respondents employed as wage and salary workers in nonagricultural and nondomestic service jobs in the survey weeks of 1969 and 1971.

[c] The small number of cases for which information on the variable was not ascertained were included in the analysis but are not reported.

Tenure in current job bears a substantial inverse relationship to mobility propensity, as does degree of job satisfaction. Family status is also an important determinant of the propensity to change jobs. Women who are not currently married and who have no children under 18 living in the household have higher mobility propensities than those living with husbands and/or children. Finally, part-time workers have substantially lower propensities to change jobs in response to wage differentials than full-time workers, presumably because the former are more likely than the latter to have special requirements concerning hours and/or location of work.

Voluntary Mobility, 1969 to 1971

By and large, the pattern of actual voluntary movement that occurred between 1969 and 1971 was consistent with the propensity factors that have been described, although there is also evidence of the effect of variations in opportunity for movement. The factors most strongly associated with the likelihood of a voluntary job change over the two-year period are the tenure the woman had in her 1969 job and the degree of job satisfaction she had expressed in the earlier year. Other things equal, women with less than a year of service in 1969 were five times as likely as those with 15 years of service to have changed employers by 1971. Also, again controlling for other factors, the minority of women expressing some dissatisfaction with their 1969 jobs had mobility rates three times as high as those who had reported the highest degree of satisfaction with their jobs. Family status is not related to actual mobility as it is to mobility propensity, which has led us to speculate that the greater likelihood among nonmarried women of job changes related to career considerations may be counterbalanced by the greater likelihood among married women of job changes related to their roles as wives and mothers.

The significant inverse relationship between actual mobility rates and age, juxtaposed with the finding that older women in our sample have mobility propensities at least as high as younger women, suggests that opportunities for movement may be more limited for older than for younger women even within the rather narrow age range of the sample. Also, the fact that black women have significantly higher mobility propensities than whites, while the (nonsignificant) differences in mobility rates are in the opposite direction, suggests more limited labor market opportunities for black than for white women. Neither of the other two measures of opportunity for movement that have been available to us shows a statistically significant relation to mobility. The educational attainment of women relative to others in their occupational category is not related to their mobility rates. On the other hand, the likelihood of a voluntary job change does appear to be inversely related to the average hourly earnings of a woman relative to others in her occupational category, although the relationship narrowly fails the formal test of statistical significance.

The "Payoff" to Voluntary Movement

The voluntary job changes made by members of the sample between 1969 and 1971 appear to have paid off in higher earnings than the women would likely have received had they remained with their 1969 employers, although this pattern is discernible only for women employed part time in one or both years. Overall, voluntary movers enjoyed an average relative increase in hourly earnings about 6 percentage points higher than that accruing to women who did not change jobs. On the other hand, women who were separated involuntarily from their 1969 employers and who were reemployed by 1972 experienced an increase in earnings 6 percentage points lower than that gained by workers who remained with the same employer. There is no evidence that the voluntary movers gained in terms of overall satisfaction with their jobs; however, the involuntary changers were substantially worse off.

Conclusion

The evidence presented in this chapter leaves little doubt that employed women in their late thirties and forties tend to be responsive to labor market forces in the manner postulated by economic theory. While the six-tenths of the employed members of the sample who manifest a propensity to change jobs for higher wages may at first blush appear to be an inexplicably low proportion, it can be put into perspective by noting that the corresponding fraction of men in their fifties and early sixties is less than half, while among young men in their early twenties in 1966 it was five-sixths.[23] Thus, while our data do not permit precise sex comparisons, the differences between the women under consideration here and older and younger groups of men appear to be entirely consistent with what would be expected on the basis of differences in age alone.

There is, to be sure, some evidence that the responsiveness of women to wage differentials may to some extent be constrained by the requirements of their non-labor-market roles as wives and mothers, since mobility propensity appears to be somewhat lower among women who are currently filling those roles than among women who are not. Nonetheless, this should not obscure the fact that both the mobility propensity and actual mobility of the total group of women are influenced by substantially the same kinds of factors that are significant for men.

Thus, from a policy perspective, aside from combating whatever sex discrimination may exist, there is no reason to believe that labor market policies relating to mobility should be any different--or any less important--for women than for men. Specifically, evidence that only a fraction of the potentially mobile women actually make a voluntary job change argues for the importance of improving labor market information.

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[23] Parnes, Miljus, and Spitz (1969), p. 151.

The strong inverse relationship between age and mobility, in the face of the absence of age differences in the propensity to move, suggests the need for improving employment opportunities for women in their forties and older. Finally, the lower-than-average mobility rates of black women despite their higher-than-average propensity to move suggests that equality of opportunity in the labor market has not yet been achieved for black women.

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CHAPTER VIII

CONCLUSIONS[*]

Although all of the studies in this volume address issues relating to the labor market behavior and experience of women in their thirties and forties, they do not fit neatly into a single topical or analytical framework, and are therefore difficult to summarize and synthesize. Fortunately, a systematic summary is not necessary, for the concluding section of each study highlights its findings and discusses their implications. Nevertheless, there is some merit in taking a panoramic view of the analyses contained in the preceding chapters to see what broad generalizations they appear to support. That is the purpose of this brief concluding chapter.

It needs to be emphasized at the outset that the findings of these studies relate to a particular cohort of women over a particular period of time. While for ease of exposition authors have occasionally used such generic terms as "women" or "married women," their evidence relates only to those women who were between the ages of 35 and 49 at the end of the five-year period covered by the detailed work histories. As the introductory chapter has made clear,[1] not only are these women at particular stages of the life cycle, but they are also to some extent products of the social milieus in which they developed and reached maturity. Hence, their behavior is not necessarily representative of the behavior of older or younger women at the same period of time; neither is it necessarily predictive of the behavior of women who will attain the same age a decade hence, for they will have been influenced by a different social environment.

For this particular cohort of women, the five years from 1967 to 1972 was a period of increasing labor force activity and of general improvement in labor market position for those who participated.[2] Labor force participation increased as many of the women became free of the responsibility of caring for young children and as their attitudes became more favorable toward market work by married women with children. Among those at work, full-time employment became more prevalent. Most of the women who were in the labor force at both dates perceived that they had progressed during the period, probably reflecting the substantial increases in real earnings that occurred, especially among those who were continuously employed.

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[*] By Herbert S. Parnes

[1] pp. 6-7.

[2] pp. 16, 20.

There has been considerable stability in the labor force status of the women both during the five-year period from 1967 to 1972 and over their entire working lives. For instance, of those employed in 1967, four-fifths were also employed in 1972, and of those out of the labor force in the earlier year two-thirds were also out at the end of the period.[3] Similarly, within marital and child-status categories there is a strong relationship between the degree of labor force activity at one period of the woman's life (e.g., between marriage and birth of first child) and another (e.g., between birth of first child and 1967).[4] These relationships reflect the fact that many of the factors that condition labor force participation (e.g., educational attainment and "tastes") are more or less invariable over time. They probably also reflect the fact that women with extensive experience in an early period command higher wage rates and thus have greater incentive to (continue to) work in a later period.

A minority of the women have established "careers" in the sense of having worked in the same or in related occupations for as much as three-fourths of the time since leaving school.[5] This proportion is as high as one-half among the never-married (without children), about one-third among the ever-married without children, but only 7 percent among the ever-married with children. However, irrespective of whether they have careers in this sense, married women who are employed make substantial contributions to family income. On average, the earnings of white women account for one-fourth of total annual family income. In black families the corresponding proportion is one-third.[6]

The importance of marital status in accounting for variation in labor force participation of women is well understood. Without making a systematic effort to do so, the studies reported in this volume have produced evidence indicating that other aspects of labor market experience and behavior also reflect differences in marital and/or child status. For instance, women who ultimately married--irrespective of whether they had children--ended their schooling earlier than those who remained single. Moreover, controlling for education, married women were not as likely as the never-married to have moved up the occupational ladder since their first job.[7] It is important to note that the full extent of the disadvantage suffered by married women in this respect is probably not captured by the data, since the analysis was confined to women who were employed in both 1967 and 1971, as well as after leaving school.

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[3] p. 16.

[4] p. 35.

[5] pp. 61-62.

[6] p. 21.

[7] p. 85.

Married women have also been shown not to fare as well as single women in improving their earnings as the result of migration.[8] While total family earnings of migrants tend to increase more than for nonmigrants, this occurs simply because the relative earnings gain of the migrant husband generally more than compensates for the relative loss experienced by his wife. Finally, the propensity to change jobs in response to perceived wage differentials is weaker among married women and among those with children than among non-married women without children, presumably reflecting the constraining influence of the presence of husbands and/or children.[9] Needless to say, these findings do not imply labor market discrimination against married as compared with single women; nor do they necessarily mean that marriage impedes upward mobility for women with given degrees of attachment to the labor force. The evidence is equally consistent with the hypothesis that women with strong labor market and career orientations are less likely to have married than those who wished to emphasize other roles.

The studies in this volume also demonstrate that, irrespective of marital status, the degree of success that women enjoy in the labor market is substantially related to the extent of their previous investments in human capital. To take the most obvious example, the number of years of school a woman has completed bears a substantial positive relationship with her earnings in 1972,[10] with the socioeconomic status of her first job after leaving school,[11] with the extent of her upward occupational mobility between her first and 1967 jobs and over the five-year period between 1967 and 1972,[12] and with the likelihood of her having pursued a career.[13] Like education, training also contributes to labor market success. Women who have participated in training programs outside of regular school are more likely than comparable women without such training to have pursued careers,[14] to have experienced upward occupational mobility,[15] and to enjoy high current earnings.[16]

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[8] p. 157.

[9] p. 166.

[10] p. 111.

[11] p. 72.

[12] pp. 78-79.

[13] p. 62.

[14] p. 62, 63.

[15] p. 78.

[16] p. 111.

Extent of work experience also bears a positive relationship to level of earnings. In this case, however, the findings of Chapter IV indicate that facile generalizations about the effect of "on-the-job training" (work experience) on earnings are likely to be misleading. Among women in occupations requiring high or moderate levels of skills, current earnings are indeed related to the extent of life-time work experience; for women in jobs requiring little or no skill, however, only very recent experience appears to be influential.[17]

Analysis of women's earnings within skill categories of occupations, incidentally, also provides some interesting insights into the character of typically female occupations. It is well known that "female" occupations tend, on average, to be both less skilled and lower-paid than "male" occupations. It is important to know, however, whether the earnings differentials simply reflect the skill differentials or whether they persist even when skill level is controlled. The answer to this question apparently differs depending upon the broad skill category of jobs one examines. Within the highest skill category of occupations, serving in a typically female occupation carries no earnings penalty when skill requirements of jobs are similar. However, in occupation categories requiring only moderate or low skill levels, being in a typically female occupation has a negative effect on earnings net of skill requirement.[18]

Along with the factors that measure their relative productivities, women's "tastes" and attitudes also bear strong relationships to their labor market behavior. Specifically, if a woman has "liberated" views on the propriety of labor market participation by the mothers of young children, she is more likely to have pursued a career,[19] and, if employed, is more likely to make child care arrangements involving care by persons other than family members.[20] The perception of a favorable attitude toward her working on the part of her husband also bears a positive relationship to the likelihood that the woman will have pursued a career.

In virtually every respect that has been examined by the studies in this volume, black women fare less well than white women. One expects to find gross racial differentials, of course, as a result of the relative disadvantage of blacks in the characteristics (e.g., education) that affect labor market position. But the inferior labor market position of black women persists even when these factors are controlled as fully as possible with the data at hand. Thus, there was a net racial difference in the socioeconomic status of the jobs women took after leaving school; moreover, black women were less likely than white to move up the occupational ladder between then and 1967, other things equal.[21] Finally, even during the five-year period 1967-1972, black women were less likely to experience upward mobility than white women, other things being equal.[22]

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[17] pp. 109, 111.

[18] p. 113.

[19] p. 65.

[20] p. 124.

In the context of interfirm mobility, black women are no more likely to make interfirm shifts than white women, despite the fact that they have a significantly higher propensity to do so, which may reflect their more limited opportunities. The only encouraging finding with respect to racial differences is that black women enjoyed greater relative increases in hourly and annual earnings than white women enjoyed during the five-year period covered by the surveys, so that the black-white differential shrank from 1.27 to 1.10 in the case of hourly earnings and from 1.26 to 1.16 in the case of annual earnings.[23]

The evidence presented in most of the chapters suggests that the labor market behavior of women in their thirties and forties is consistent, by and large, with what would be expected on the basis of economic theory. The relative occupational position and the relative earnings of a woman are related to the same kinds of factors that operate for men. (It should be understood that the reference here is to the occupational position or earnings relative to other women in the same age category. Nothing in the volume permits us to say anything about the issue of sex discrimination in employment.) Moreover, both the propensities to make job changes and the actual changes made by women are influenced by substantially the same set of factors that are significant for men.[24]

Thus, from a policy perspective--beyond combatting whatever sex discrimination may exist and enhancing labor market options by continuing to expand the availability of child care service--there is no reason to believe that labor market policies relating to women should be any different from--or any less important than--for men. For example, the fact that only a fraction of potentially mobile women actually make voluntary job changes argues for the improvement of labor market information. The strong inverse relationship between age and mobility, despite the absence of age differences in the propensity to move, suggests the need for improving employment opportunities for women in their forties and older. Finally, the numerous indications of unequal labor market opportunities for black women point to the importance of continued efforts to combat racial discrimination.

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[21] pp. 75, 79.

[22] p. 82.

[23] p. 20.

[24] pp. 168-69, 172-74.

APPENDIX A

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES

Tables in this Appendix have been cited at relevant points in the text. The initial number of each table indicates the chapter to which it relates.

In these and all other tables in this volume, counts of individuals are shown in terms of number of sample cases rather than weighted population estimates. However, all calculations (percentages, means, regressions) are based on weighted observations.

In all percentage distributions, cases for which no information was obtained are excluded from the totals. Percentage distributions may not add up to 100 percent because of rounding. However, where numbers of sample cases do not add to their indicated totals, the difference is attributable (unless otherwise noted) to cases for which no information was obtained and/or to rounding.

Table 1A-1 Noninterview Rate, 1972 Survey, by Reason and by Selected Characteristics of Respondents in 1967

Characteristic, 1967[b]	Number of respondents, 1967	Number deceased 1967-1972	Number of women potentially eligible for interview, 1972	Noninterview rate, 1972		
				Refusal	Unable to locate[a]	Total
All respondents	5,083	12	5,071	1.9	9.9	11.8
Whites	3,606	3	3,603	1.9	9.4	11.3
Blacks	1,390	9	1,381	2.0	10.6	12.6
Age						
30-34	1,612	0	1,612	1.9	10.0	11.9
Whites	1,152	0	1,152	1.8	9.3	11.1
Blacks	433	0	433	2.3	10.9	13.2
35-39	1,627	4	1,623	1.7	9.7	11.4
Whites	1,132	2	1,130	1.8	9.0	10.8
Blacks	460	2	458	1.5	11.1	12.6
40-44	1,844	8	1,836	2.1	10.0	12.1
Whites	1,322	1	1,321	2.0	9.9	11.9
Blacks	497	7	490	2.0	10.0	12.0
Marital and family status, 1967						
Never married	290	0	290	3.1	12.8	15.9
Whites	174	0	174	3.4	12.6	16.0
Blacks	112	0	112	2.7	11.6	14.3
Married spouse present, children under 18 at home	3,503	2	3,501	1.7	8.2	9.9
Whites	2,723	1	2,722	1.6	7.9	9.5
Blacks	713	1	712	2.0	8.6	10.6
Married spouse present, no children under 18 at home	561	4	557	2.9	14.5	17.4
Whites	389	2	387	3.4	15.0	18.4
Blacks	166	2	164	1.8	12.8	14.6
Other marital status, children under 18 at home	571	5	566	1.6	12.0	13.6
Whites	246	0	246	1.2	14.2	15.4
Blacks	316	5	311	1.9	10.0	11.9
Other marital status, no children under 18 at home	158	1	157	1.9	19.7	21.6
Whites	74	0	74	2.7	13.5	16.2
Blacks	83	1	82	1.2	25.6	26.8

Table 1A-1 continued.

Characteristic, 1967[b]	Number of respondents, 1967	Number deceased 1967-1972	Number of women potentially eligible for interview, 1972	Noninterview rate, 1972		
				Refusal	Unable to locate[a]	Total
Years of school completed						
Less than 12	2,076	6	2,070	2.1	10.8	12.9
Whites	1,183	0	1,183	2.4	11.1	13.5
Blacks	860	6	854	1.6	10.2	11.8
12	2,149	3	2,146	1.8	9.4	11.2
Whites	1,724	2	1,722	1.7	8.7	10.4
Blacks	386	1	385	2.3	11.2	13.5
13 or more	837	3	834	1.7	8.6	10.3
Whites	686	1	685	1.5	8.2	9.7
Blacks	136	2	134	3.0	10.4	13.4
Number of weeks worked in 1966						
0	2,078	5	2,073	1.4	9.8	11.2
Whites	1,655	1	1,654	1.6	8.5	10.1
Blacks	387	4	383	0.8	14.1	14.9
1-13	352	0	352	1.4	11.1	12.5
Whites	239	0	239	1.7	10.5	12.2
Blacks	104	0	104	0	12.5	12.5
14-25	281	0	281	1.4	11.7	13.1
Whites	178	0	178	1.7	11.2	12.9
Blacks	97	0	97	1.0	13.4	14.4
26-39	437	4	433	2.5	10.9	13.4
Whites	279	2	277	2.2	10.8	13.0
Blacks	148	2	146	2.7	10.3	13.0
40-49	386	1	385	3.1	8.6	11.7
Whites	243	0	243	3.3	11.1	14.4
Blacks	137	1	136	2.9	4.4	7.3
50-52	1,543	1	1,542	2.3	9.5	11.8
Whites	1,011	0	1,011	2.1	9.6	11.7
Blacks	512	1	511	2.9	8.8	11.7

Table continued on next page.

Table 1A-1 continued.

Characteristic, 1967[b]	Number of respondents, 1967	Number deceased 1967-1972	Number of women potentially eligible for interview, 1972	Noninterview rate, 1972		
				Refusal	Unable to locate[a]	Total
Health status						
Prevents work	320	2	318	1.6	14.2	15.8
Whites	214	1	213	1.4	9.9	11.3
Blacks	102	1	101	1.0	23.8	24.8
Limits amount or kind of work	615	2	613	1.5	11.4	12.9
Whites	406	0	406	1.5	11.8	13.3
Blacks	197	2	195	1.0	10.3	11.3
Does not limit amount or kind of work	4,134	8	4,126	2.0	9.3	11.3
Whites	2,974	2	2,972	2.0	9.0	11.0
Blacks	1,089	6	1,083	2.2	9.4	11.6
Region of residence						
New England	210	0	210	1.0	9.0	10.0
Whites	192	0	192	1.0	9.4	10.4
Blacks	18	0	18	0	5.6	5.6
Mid Atlantic	943	2	941	2.1	12.1	14.2
Whites	741	0	741	2.3	10.7	13.0
Blacks	196	2	194	1.5	17.5	19.0
East North Central	926	3	923	1.8	8.8	10.6
Whites	721	1	720	1.5	6.8	8.3
Blacks	198	2	196	2.6	16.3	18.9
West North Central	316	1	315	0.6	9.8	10.4
Whites	270	0	270	0.7	6.7	7.4
Blacks	44	1	43	0	30.2	30.2
South Atlantic	1,048	3	1,045	2.3	10.8	13.1
Whites	552	0	552	2.4	13.9	16.3
Blacks	491	3	488	2.0	7.0	9.0
East South Central	363	0	363	1.4	7.4	8.8
Whites	198	0	198	1.5	8.6	10.1
Blacks	165	0	165	1.2	6.1	7.3

Table continued on next page.

Table 1A-1 continued.

Characteristic, 1967[b]	Number of respondents, 1967	Number deceased 1967-1972	Number of women potentially eligible for interview, 1972	Noninterview rate, 1972		
				Refusal	Unable to locate[a]	Total
West South Central	515	2	513	1.9	4.9	6.8
Whites	313	1	312	1.9	5.8	7.7
Blacks	196	1	195	2.1	3.6	5.7
Mountain	194	0	194	2.1	10.8	12.9
Whites	178	0	178	2.2	10.1	12.3
Blacks	4	0	4	0	25.0	25.0
Pacific	568	1	567	2.3	12.7	15.0
Whites	441	1	440	2.3	10.5	12.8
Blacks	78	0	78	3.8	19.2	23.0
Total family income						
Under $5,000	1,178	7	1,171	1.3	10.9	12.2
Whites	488	0	488	1.0	12.3	13.3
Blacks	670	7	663	1.4	9.5	10.9
$5,000-$9,999	1,664	4	1,660	2.0	9.0	11.0
Whites	1,262	2	1,260	1.7	8.5	10.2
Blacks	374	2	372	2.9	10.2	13.1
$10,000-$14,999	926	0	926	1.7	7.1	8.8
Whites	801	0	801	1.6	6.9	8.5
Blacks	104	0	104	2.9	8.7	11.6
$15,000-$19,999	201	0	201	1.0	9.5	10.5
Whites	182	0	182	0.5	9.3	9.8
Blacks	17	0	17	5.9	11.8	17.7
$20,000-$24,999	53	0	53	0	1.9	1.9
Whites	50	0	50	0	2.0	2.0
Blacks	2	0	2	0	0	0
$25,000 or more	34	0	34	0	14.7	14.7
Whites	33	0	33	0	15.2	15.2
Blacks	0	0	0	0	0	0

[a] Includes a small number of cases in which the respondent was inaccessible to the interviewer even though her location was ascertained.

[b] Total for each category includes a small number of nonwhites other than blacks.

Table 1A-2

Marital Status, 1972, by 1967 and by Race[a]

(Percentage distributions)

Marital status, 1967	Number of respondents	Vertical percentage distribution	Marital status, 1972						
			Total	Married, spouse present	Married, spouse absent	Widowed	Divorced	Separated	Never married
			WHITES						
Total	3,195	100	100	84	1	3	6	2	4
Married, spouse present	2,779	87	100	93	1	2	2	2	0
Married, spouse absent	20	1	100	b	b	b	b	b	b
Widowed	54	2	100	20	0	74	7	0	0
Divorced	134	4	100	20	1	4	72	3	0
Separated	62	2	100	26	2	2	37	34	0
Never married	146	5	100	13	0	1	1	1	85
			BLACKS						
Total	1,207	100	100	60	1	9	9	15	6
Married, spouse present	777	66	100	83	2	4	4	7	0
Married, spouse absent	13	1	100	b	b	b	b	b	b
Widowed	67	5	100	13	0	82	2	2	0
Divorced	73	6	100	21	0	4	73	3	0
Separated	181	15	100	10	0	11	14	65	0
Never married	96	7	100	18	0	0	1	2	79

[a] In all tables relating to Chapter I that show data for two or more survey years, the universe is restricted to respondents who provided the relevant information in both (all) years. In other words, the data in each table relate to precisely the same set of individuals at both (all) time periods. The only exception is Table 1A-16, in which each year's data relate to individuals who were employed as wage or salary earners in that year and who reported a rate of pay.

[b] Percentage not shown where base is fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 1A-3 Age Distribution of Children Living at Home, 1972, by 1967 and by Race[a]

(Percentage distributions)

Age distribution of children, 1967	Number of respondents	Vertical percentage distribution	Age distribution of children, 1972						
			Total percent	Under 6 only	Under 6 and 6-17	6-13 only	6-13 and 14-17	14-17 only	None under 18
	WHITES								
Total or average	2,443	100	100	2	12	18	25	18	25
Under 6 only	96	4	100	5	54	41	0	0	0
Under 6 and 6-17	285	12	100	0	33	26	40	0	0
6-13 only	821	34	100	0	12	22	39	23	4
6-13 and 14-17	616	25	100	1	4	14	28	43	10
14-17 only	271	11	100	4	1	10	0	0	86
None under 18	354	14	100	7	6	10	0	0	77
	BLACKS								
Total or average	545	100	100	2	14	18	22	13	32
Under 6 only	14	2	100	b	b	b	b	b	b
Under 6 and 6-17	91	16	100	1	33	23	42	0	1
6-13 only	111	23	100	1	15	29	28	19	7
6-13 and 14-17	148	25	100	1	11	12	34	33	10
14-17 only	51	9	100	1	6	9	0	0	83
None under 18	130	24	100	5	1	11	0	3	80

[a] Respondents married with spouse present in 1967 and 1972. See Table 1A-2, Note a.

[b] Percentages not shown where base represents fewer than 25 sample cases.

Table 1A-4 Comparative Health Condition, 1967 and 1972, by Age and Race[a]

(Percentage distributions)

Age	Number of respondents	Total percent	No health problem either year	Health problem 1972, none 1967	Health problem 1967, none 1972	Health problems both years
	WHITES					
Total or average	3,165	100	75	8	8	8
35-39	1,014	100	82	7	6	6
40-44	1,000	100	76	8	9	8
45-49	1,151	100	69	11	9	11
	BLACKS					
Total or average	1,187	100	66	15	8	11
35-39	368	100	72	11	9	9
40-44	394	100	69	16	5	10
45-49	425	100	58	18	10	15

a See Table 1A-2, note a.

Table 1A-5 Attitude toward Market Work, 1972, by 1967 and by Race[a]

(Percentage distributions)

Attitude toward market work, 1967	Number of respondents	Vertical percentage distribution	Total percent	Favorable	Ambivalent	Unfavorable
	WHITES					
Total or average	3,122	100	100	32	41	27
Favorable	706	23	100	53	35	12
Ambivalent	1,290	41	100	32	44	24
Unfavorable	1,126	36	100	19	41	39
	BLACKS					
Total or average	1,167	100	100	40	38	22
Favorable	426	37	100	50	34	17
Ambivalent	450	38	100	37	38	24
Unfavorable	291	25	100	31	42	28

[a] See Table 1A-2, note a.

Table 1A-6 Respondent's Perception of Husband's Attitude toward Her Working, by Respondent's Labor Force Status and Race: 1967 and 1972[a]

(Percentage distributions)

Husband's attitude	1967		1972	
	Employed as wage and salary worker 1967 and 1972	Out of labor force 1967 and 1972	Employed as wage and salary worker 1967 and 1972	Out of labor force 1967 and 1972
	WHITES			
Number of respondents	674	1,012	674	1,012
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Likes very much	28	5	27	5
Likes somewhat	27	8	30	8
Undecided	28	14	27	23
Dislikes somewhat	14	22	12	25
Dislikes very much	3	51	3	39
	BLACKS			
Number of respondents	271	154	271	154
Total percent	100	100	100	100
Likes very much	34	14	31	8
Likes somewhat	22	12	27	16
Undecided	23	22	26	24
Dislikes somewhat	17	11	13	21
Dislikes very much	4	41	3	32

[a] Respondents married, spouse present, 1967 and 1972, who were either employed as wage and salary workers in both 1967 and 1972 survey weeks or were out of the labor force in both survey weeks. See Table 1A-2, note a.

Table 1A-7 Labor Force Participation Rates, by Age and Race: Survey Weeks 1967 to 1972[a]

Age, 1967	Number of respondents interviewed all years	1967	1969	1971	1972
	WHITES				
Total or average	3,154	47.1	46.4	55.0	55.8
30-34	1,012	43.5	42.2	51.8	53.6
35-39	955	46.9	46.6	56.8	56.3
40-44	1,147	50.5	49.8	55.9	57.2
	BLACKS				
Total or average	1,176	67.5	60.1	65.5	63.4
30-34	365	62.6	57.4	64.4	61.4
35-39	387	70.4	61.4	65.2	63.1
40-44	424	69.2	61.5	66.9	65.6

[a] See Table 1A-2, note a.

Table 1A-8 Labor Force Participation Rates, by Age and Race: Survey Weeks 1967 to 1972: Ever Married and Never-Married Women Without Children, as of 1972[a]

Age, 1967	Number of respondents interviewed all years	1967	1969	1971	1972
	WHITES				
Total or average	570	71.1	70.6	71.3	69.5
30-34	106	81.7	76.7	79.3	76.9
35-39	144	73.5	77.2	74.6	71.9
40-44	320	66.6	65.6	67.3	66.2
	BLACKS				
Total or average	254	76.4	67.4	71.5	67.7
30-34	45	71.3	73.9	83.5	72.2
35-39	62	83.4	71.2	66.8	69.3
40-44	147	75.1	64.3	70.1	65.9

[a] See Table 1A-2, note a.

Table 1A-9 Labor Force and Employment Status, Survey Week 1972, by Survey Week 1967 and by Race[a]

(Percentage distributions)

Labor force and employment status, 1967	Number of respondents	Vertical percentage distribution	Labor force and employment status, 1972			
			Total percent	Employed	Unemployed	Out of labor force
	WHITES					
Total or average	3,195	100	100	54	2	44
Employed	1,449	45	100	79	2	19
Unemployed	59	2	100	64	8	28
Out of labor force	1,687	53	100	31	2	67
	BLACKS					
Total or average	1,207	100	100	61	2	37
Employed	741	63	100	78	2	20
Unemployed	62	5	100	58	8	34
Out of labor force	404	32	100	29	2	69

a See Table 1A-2, note a.

Table 1A-10 Number of Weeks in Labor Force, 1972, by 1966[a] and by Race

(Percentage distributions)

Weeks in the labor force, 1967	Number of respondents	Vertical percentage distribution	Weeks in the labor force, 1972							
			Total percent	0	1-5	6-13	14-26	27-39	40-49	50+
	WHITES									
Total or average	3,089	100	100	36	3	2	3	6	18	32
0	1,408	46	100	61	3	3	3	5	10	14
1-5	86	3	100	32	11	5	4	10	13	24
6-13	135	4	100	31	4	5	3	5	16	36
14-26	179	6	100	24	2	2	2	9	21	38
27-39	173	6	100	15	2	5	4	12	23	39
40-49	179	6	100	18	2	1	3	7	26	42
50-52	929	30	100	9	2	1	2	6	26	54
	BLACKS									
Total or average	1,162	100	100	28	3	3	2	5	18	41
0	272	23	100	63	5	5	2	2	8	15
1-5	47	3	100	61	8	5	2	4	8	12
6-13	56	4	100	18	6	7	5	5	15	44
14-26	110	9	100	38	3	5	4	9	10	32
27-39	85	7	100	22	4	2	3	7	13	49
40-49	95	8	100	10	0	2	1	11	22	55
50-52	497	45	100	10	3	1	2	5	24	55

[a] Data relate to calendar year 1966 and to period between 1971 and 1972 surveys. See Table 1A-2, note a.

Table 1A-11 Number of Weeks Unemployed, 1972, by 1966 and by Race[a]

(Percentage distributions)

Number of weeks unemployed in 1966	Number of respondents	Vertical percentage distribution	Number of weeks unemployed in 1971				
			Total percent	None	1-4	5-14	15 or more
	WHITES						
Total or average	1,418	100	100	89	4	3	4
None	1,282	90	100	90	4	3	3
1-4	71	5	100	85	7	4	4
5-14	38	3	100	79	4	12	6
15 or more	27	2	100	71	4	13	12
	BLACKS						
Total or average	728	100	100	87	6	3	3
None	612	86	100	89	6	3	3
1-4	45	5	100	72	11	9	7
5-14	43	6	100	83	12	3	2
15 or more	28	3	100	77	3	4	17

[a] Respondents who were in the labor force at least one week in each period. Data relate to calendar year 1966 and to the period between the 1971 and 1972 interview. See Table 1A-2, note a.

Table 1A-12 Respondent's Perception of Progress during Past Five Years, by Age and Race[a]

(Percentage distributions)

Age	Number of respondents	Total percent	"Progressed"	"Held own"	"Moved backward"
	WHITES				
Total or average	1,218	100	60	37	4
35-39	351	100	63	33	4
40-44	381	100	59	37	4
45-49	486	100	57	39	4
	BLACKS				
Total or average	620	100	50	46	4
35-39	183	100	54	42	4
40-44	207	100	50	46	4
45-49	230	100	46	50	4

[a] Respondents in the labor force in the 1967 and 1972 survey weeks. See Table 1A-2, note a.

Table 1A-13 Comparative Number of Hours Worked, Survey Weeks 1967 and 1972, by Race[a]

(Percentage distributions)

Race	Number of respondents	Total percent	Full-time, 1967 and 1972	Full-time 1967, part-time 1972	Part-time 1967, full-time 1972	Part-time 1967 and 1972
Whites	837	100	54	10	24	12
Blacks	461	100	51	14	19	16

[a] Respondents employed as wage and salary workers at the times of the 1967 and 1972 survey weeks. See Table 1A-2, note a.

Table 1A-14 Means of Transportation to Work, by Race and Hours per Week Usually Worked: 1967 and 1972[a]

(Percentage distributions)

Means of transportation	1967						1972					
	WHITES			BLACKS			WHITES			BLACKS		
	Total	Full time	Part time	Total	Full time	Part time	Total	Full time	Part time	Total	Full time	Part time
Number of respondents	969	762	190	528	391	133	969	810	158	528	398	126
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Own auto	71	71	72	41	45	26	80	80	76	52	57	33
Ride with someone	8	10	4	16	17	10	6	7	4	16	15	19
Public transport	6	6	6	22	20	29	5	5	6	18	16	30
Walk	7	6	8	7	6	12	5	5	7	6	5	9
Own auto + other	4	4	6	4	4	6	2	2	1	2	3	1
Other	4	3	5	11	8	17	2	1	6	5	4	8

[a] Women employed in both survey weeks as wage and salary workers. See Table 1A-2, note a.

Table 1A-15 Mean Travel Time to Work, in Minutes,[a] by Mode of Travel, Hours Usually Worked, and Race: 1967 and 1972[b]

Mode of travel and hours usually worked	1967				1972			
	WHITES		BLACKS		WHITES		BLACKS	
	Number of respondents	Number of minutes	Number of respondents	Number of minutes	Number of respondents	Number of minutes	Number of respondents	Number of minutes
Own automobile	686	16	207	19	758	16	264	19
Full-time	536	17	165	20	638	17	218	20
Part-time	137	12	39	17	120	12	42	15
Other mode of travel	280	21	320	32	209	23	264	28
Full-time	223	23	226	30	171	23	180	29
Part-time	52	15	93	37	38	24	84	28
All modes of travel	969	17	528	27	969	18	528	24
Full-time	762	18	391	26	810	18	398	24
Part-time	190	13	133	31	158	15	126	24

a One-way.

b Respondents employed as wage and salary workers in survey week of both years. See Table 1A-2, note a.

Table 1A-16 Real Average Hourly Earnings (May 1972 Dollars), by Age and Race: 1967, 1969, 1971, and 1972 Respondents Employed as Wage and Salary Workers in Each Year[a]

Age	1967		1969		1971		1972		Percent increase, 1967-1972
	Number of respondents	Average hourly earnings	Number of respondents	Average hourly earnings	Number of respondents	Average hourly earnings	Number of respondents	Average hourly earnings	
	WHITES								
Total or average	1,355	$2.73	1,368	$2.85	1,440	$2.89	1,444	$2.97	9
35-39	410	2.69	400	2.92	436	2.90	450	2.90	8
40-44	419	2.75	437	2.83	460	2.92	460	3.03	10
45-59	526	2.73	531	2.82	544	2.86	534	2.97	9
	BLACKS								
Total or average	673	2.15	686	2.39	633	2.56	616	2.70	26
35-39	196	2.16	216	2.46	206	2.52	196	2.79	29
40-44	221	2.09	224	2.36	197	2.53	201	2.59	24
45-59	256	2.21	246	2.36	230	2.62	219	2.72	23

a See Table 1A-2, note a.

Table 1A-17 Real Average Hourly Earnings (May 1972 Dollars), by Age and Race: 1967, 1969, 1971, and 1972

Respondents Employed as Wage and Salary Workers in All Years[a]

Age	Number of respondents	1967	1969	1971	1972	Percent increase, 1967-1972
	WHITES					
Total or average	730	$2.83	$3.09	$3.21	$3.34	18
35-39	189	2.82	3.10	3.28	3.29	17
40-44	237	2.82	3.09	3.25	3.41	21
45-49	304	2.84	3.07	3.13	3.30	16
	BLACKS					
Total or average	342	2.39	2.70	2.84	3.00	26
35-39	95	2.30	2.58	2.80	3.06	33
40-44	113	2.43	2.81	2.80	2.96	22
45-49	134	2.43	2.69	2.92	3.00	23

[a] See Table 1A-2, note a.

Table 1A-18 Mean Real Annual Wage and Salary Income in 1971 Dollars, by Age and Race: 1966, 1968, 1970, and 1971[a]

Age	Number of respondents	1966	1968	1970	1971	Percent change, 1966-1971
	WHITES					
Total or average	705	$4,817	$5,680	$5,859	$6,238	29
35-39[b]	181	4,499	5,570	5,704	6,018	34
40-44	234	4,785	5,585	5,944	6,296	32
45-49	290	5,041	5,830	5,883	6,325	25
	BLACKS					
Total or average	390	3,828	4,503	5,007	5,369	40
35-39	106	3,711	4,427	4,953	5,142	39
40-44	132	3,698	4,579	4,977	5,493	49
45-49	152	4,033	4,493	5,074	5,425	35

[a] Respondents employed as wage and salary workers in all survey weeks. See Table 1A-2, note a.

[b] Two data cases have been removed from this age category and from the total because of obvious key-punch errors.

Table 1A-19 Annual Wage and Salary Income of Respondent, by Total Family Income and by Race: Respondents Reporting Some Earnings in 1971[a]

Family income in 1971 ($000's)	Number of respondents	Vertical percentage distribution	Wage and salary income of respondent in 1971 ($000's)							Mean of family income	Mean of respondent's earnings	Percent of family income earned by respondent
			Total percent	Less than 2	2-3.9	4-5.9	6-7.9	8-9.9	10+			
WHITES												
Total or average	911	100	100	26	24	24	14	7	5	$15,954	$4,220	26
Less than 8	80	8	100	48	37	12	3	0	0	4,381	2,164	49
8-9.9	98	11	100	44	38	14	4	0	0	9,096	2,451	27
10-11.9	108	11	100	35	31	25	8	1	1	11,080	3,[illegible]13	28
12-13.9	136	15	100	33	35	22	8	2	0	12,992	3,076	24
14-15.9	119	13	100	23	24	32	20	2	0	14,982	3,908	26
16-19.9	179	20	100	17	15	32	23	10	3	17,724	4,873	27
20+	191	22	100	11	12	20	20	19	19	26,761	6,720	25
BLACKS												
Total or average	312	100	100	34	24	21	10	7	5	11,731	4,161	35
Less than 6	78	20	100	78	15	6	0	0	0	4,309	1,313	30
6-7.9	44	12	100	59	38	0	4	0	0	6,963	1,804	26
8-9.9	53	18	100	23	51	23	3	0	0	9,070	3,096	34
10-13.9	58	21	100	20	24	41	6	8	0	11,862	4,098	35
14+	79	29	100	9	6	25	26	17	17	20,361	7,801	38

[a] Includes only respondents who were married and living with their husbands at the time of the 1972 survey and who reported wage and salary income for 1971.

Table 3A-1 Career Status of Respondents, by Marital Status and Race[a]

(Percentage distributions)

Marital and child status and race	Number of respondents	Total percent	Career	Noncareer		
				Total	Strong attachment[d]	Weak attachment[e]
All marital status categories[b]						
Total	4,402[c]	100	11	89	6	84
Whites	3,195	100	10	90	5	85
Blacks	1,207	100	14	86	12	74
Ever-married with children						
Total	3,915	100	7	93	4	89
Whites	2,875	100	7	93	3	90
Blacks	1,040	100	11	89	11	78
Ever-married without children						
Total	245	100	32	68	14	54
Whites	174	100	31	69	14	55
Blacks	71	100	41	59	16	43
Never-married without children						
Total	183	100	49	51	29	23
Whites	140	100	49	51	29	22
Blacks	43	100	50	50	20	29

[a] Universe consists of respondents who were interviewed in 1972.

[b] Never-married respondents with children are included in the total but are not shown separately.

[c] Includes a total of 1,099 respondents for whom career status could not be ascertained. These are excluded from the base for purpose of calculating the percentage distributions.

[d] Women who meet the 75-percent-of-time criterion for career status, but not the occupational criterion. See text, p. 59 .

[e] Women who do not meet the 75-percent-of-time criterion for career status. See text, p. 59 .

Table 3A-2 Percent Distributions of All Employed Women and of Career Women, by Occupation and by Race, 1972[a]

Occupation	TOTAL		WHITES		BLACKS	
	All employed women	Career women	All employed women	Career women	All employed women	Career women
Number of respondents[b]	2,435	352	1,721	241	714	111
Total percent	100	100	100	100	100	100
Professional, technical	15.6	26.5	16.2	26.3	11.2	27.6
Managerial	6.3	5.3	6.9	6.0	2.3	0.7
Clerical	35.6	43.9	38.0	47.9	16.5	17.7
Sales	5.3	0.4	5.6	0.4	2.5	0.0
Blue collar[c]	16.4	13.8	15.8	13.5	20.6	15.5
Domestic services	3.0	1.4	1.4	0.4	15.2	8.3
Other services	15.5	6.4	13.6	2.8	29.9	30.3

[a] Universe consists of those respondents who were employed in 1972.

[b] Agricultural workers are included in the total but are not shown separately.

[c] Includes craftsmen, operatives, and nonfarm laborers.

Table 4A-1 Regressions Relating Average Hourly Earnings to Human Capital Variables, Sex-Type of Occupation, and Control Variables for Women in the MEDIUM SKILL Category: Whites and Blacks

Variable	WHITES		BLACKS	
	Regression coefficient	t-ratio	Regression coefficient	t-ratio
EDUCATION	0.027	3.62**	0.029	2.11*
EVER TRAIN	0.061	1.97*	0.114	1.71*
TENURE	0.008	3.02**	0.005	1.08
YEARS WORKED	0.011	4.93**	-0.001	-0.24
WEEKS WORKED	0.002	4.93**	-0.002	-2.00*
FEMOCC	-0.107	-3.00**	0.007	0.10
SKILL 5	0.099	3.23**	0.097	1.55
Control variables:				
BAD HEALTH	0.025	0.53	0.089	1.11
PRIVATE	-0.064	-1.85*	-0.143	-2.40**
SOUTH	-0.043	-1.47	-0.240	-3.28**
SIZE	0.00005	4.52**	0.00004	2.20*
PART-TIME	-0.033	-0.90	-0.278	-2.31*
COLBAR	0.089	2.68**	0.187	3.58**
CONSTANT	4.76	42.80**	5.68	21.16**
$\bar{R}^2$	0.352		0.570	
F-ratio	17.20		11.52	
Number of sample cases	388		104	

* Significant at $\alpha \le .05$, 1-tail test.
** Significant at $\alpha \le .01$, 1-tail test.

Table 6A-1 Regression Results: Logit Analysis of the Likelihood of Family Migration 1967 to 1972[a]

(t-ratios in parentheses)

Variable	Equation (1)	Equation (2)	Equation (3)	Equation (4)	Mean	Standard deviation
Constant	- 1.99 (-23.98)***	-1.80 (-2.93)***	- 1.97 (-26.60)***	- 1.83 (-3.01)***		
Employed wife, 1967 (dummy)	- 0.356 (- 2.51)***	-0.266 (-1.84)**			0.409	0.492
Husband's age, 1967		-0.044 (-3.53)***		-0.040 (-3.26)***	40.4	6.1
Husband's education, 1967		0.134 (5.90)***		0.132 (5.85)***	11.8	3.2
Children aged 6-18 (dummy)		-0.188 (-1.04)		-0.235 (-1.30)*		
Wife's job tenure, 1967			- 0.148 (- 3.02)***	-0.135 (-2.69)***	1.99	4.31
Wife's tenure squared			0.004 (1.55)*	0.004 (1.47)*	22.5	77.0
Pseudo R^2 [b]	.006	.057	.017	.066		
Likelihood of ratio test	6.50	66.67	19.47	77.09		
Number of sample cases	2,322	2,322	2,322	2,322	2,322	2,322

* Significant at $\alpha \leq .10$, 1-tail test.

** Significant at $\alpha \leq .05$, 1-tail test.

*** Significant at $\alpha \leq .01$, 1-tail test.

[a] The dependent variable used in the analyses is constructed from a dummy variable with the value of "1" if the respondent reports a different SMSA or county of residence in 1967 than in 1972 and "0" otherwise.

[b] PSEUDO $R^2 = [1 - \exp\{Z(L_w - L_r/T)\}]/[1 - \exp\{Z(L_w - L_{max})/T\}]$ where L_w is the maximum of the log of the likelihood function using a constant, L_r is the maximum using all variables and L_{max} is the maximum possible.

Table 6A-2 Probability of Family Migration, 1967 to 1972, by Wife's Job Tenure and Presence of School-Aged Children

Presence of children, aged 16-18 in family / Wife's tenure at 1967 job	No children aged 6-18	Any children aged 6-18
0 Years	13.2%	10.7%
5 Years	7.9%	6.3%
10 Years	5.5%	4.4%

Source: Calculated on the basis of regression coefficients in Equation (4), Table 6A-1.

Table 6A-3 Summary Statistics for Variables Used in Tables 6.3 and 6.5

Variable	Mean	Standard deviation
Change in husband's labor market earnings 1966-1967 (in dollars per year)	3,217	3,551
Husband's labor market earnings 1966 (in dollars)	8,526	3,333
Change in family's earnings 1966-1971 (in dollars per year)	4,371	3,932
Family's labor market earnings 1966 (in dollars)	9,742	3,501
Change in wife's weeks worked 1966-1971	6.04	22.81
Wife's weeks worked 1966	18.58	22.83
Migrants 1967-1971 (dummy)	.077	.267
Migrants 1969-1971 (dummy)	.028	.164
Multiple migrants (dummy)	.006	.077
Intrafirm transfers (1968-1971)	.018	.134
Husband's education	11.9	3.0
Husband's age, 1967	39.9	5.5

Table 7A-1a Unadjusted and Adjusted[a] Proportions of Full-Time Wage and Salary Workers[b] with Propensity to Change Jobs, by Selected Characteristics, 1972

MCA results (F-ratios in parentheses)

Characteristic	Number of respondents	Unadjusted percent	Adjusted percent
Total sample (8.44**)	1,437	64.0	64.0
$\bar{R}^2 = 0.063$			
Age (0.78)			
35-39	429	64.3	61.8
40-44	480	64.4	64.1
45-49	528	63.5	65.6
Race (2.43)			
White	1,012	63.3	63.3
Black	425	70.0	69.2
Family status (2.88*)			
MSP, child(ren) under 18	672	65.5	64.3
Non-MSP, child(ren) under 18	200	67.6	65.5
MSP, no child(ren) under 18	313	56.6	58.5
Non-MSP, no child(ren) under 18	252	67.8	69.9
Job satisfaction[c] (15.38**)			
Likes job very much	810	56.8	57.4
Likes job somewhat	533	72.4	71.9
Dislikes job	91	84.4	82.1
Tenure in 1972 job (11.17**)			
Less than 1 year	83	80.8	79.1
1-5 years	352	73.0	72.7
6-9 years	407	66.6	66.5
10-14 years	273	56.2	56.9
15 years or more	322	53.1	53.5

* Significant at $\alpha \leq .05$.

** Significant at $\alpha \leq .01$.

[a] Adjusted for the effects of all the variables shown in the stub of the table. For method of adjustment, see text.

[b] Analysis confined to respondents employed as nonagricultural and nondomestic wage and salary earners in 1972.

[c] The small number of cases for which information on the variable was not ascertained were included in the analysis but not reported.

Table 7A-1b Unadjusted and Adjusted[a] Proportions of Part-Time Wage and Salary Workers[b] with Propensity to Change Jobs, by Selected Characteristics, 1972

MCA results (F-ratios in parentheses)

Characteristic	Number of respondents	Unadjusted percent	Adjusted percent
Total sample (3.72**)	413	54.1	54.1
$\bar{R}^2 = 0.079$			
Age (0.13)			
35-39	161	53.3	53.6
40-44	120	51.7	52.9
45-49	132	57.7	56.1
Race (3.40)			
White	339	52.5	53.0
Black	74	78.4	71.0
Family status (2.68*)			
MSP, child(ren) under 18	282	52.1	52.7
Non-MSP, child(ren) under 18	51	61.0	57.1
MSP, no child(ren) under 18	58	50.9	51.2
Non-MSP, no child(ren) under 18	22	d	d
Job satisfaction[c] (3.88**)			
Likes job very much	247	47.5	47.8
Likes job somewhat	141	62.9	63.5
Dislikes job	24	d	d
Tenure in 1972 job (5.65**)			
Less than 1 year	54	56.4	54.5
1-5 years	163	62.0	62.0
6-9 years	128	52.1	53.2
10-14 years	37	52.8	53.0
15 years or more	31	19.0	17.6

* Significant at $\alpha \le .05$.

** Significant at $\alpha \le .01$.

[a] Adjusted for the effects of all the variables shown in the stub of the table. For method of adjustment, see text.

[b] Analysis confined to respondents employed as nonagricultural and nondomestic wage and salary earners in 1972.

[c] The small number of cases for which information on the variable was not ascertained were included in the analysis but not reported.

[d] Percentages not reported when less than 25 cases.

Table 7A-2a Unadjusted and Adjusted[a] Proportions of Full-Time Workers[b] Making Voluntary Job Change, 1969 to 1971, by Selected Characteristics

MCA results (F-ratios in parentheses)

Characteristic	Number of respondents	Unadjusted percent	Adjusted percent[a]
Total sample (4.13**)	1,190	10.5	10.5
$\bar{R}^2 = 0.059$			
Age, 1972 (5.28**)			
35-39	321	15.5	15.1
40-44	394	10.8	10.0
45-49	475	7.2	8.0
Race (1.86)			
White	803	10.7	11.0
Black	387	9.1	7.6
Family status, 1969 (0.19)			
MSP, child(ren) under 18	598	11.9	11.0
Non-MSP, child(ren) under 18	196	11.7	10.4
MSP, no child(ren) under 18	199	8.0	10.3
Non-MSP, no child(ren) under 18	197	7.7	9.2
Job satisfaction, 1969 (8.12**)			
Likes job very much	753	8.1	8.1
Likes job somewhat	358	13.2	13.4
Dislikes job	39	28.6	29.4
NA	40	16.0	14.0
Tenure in 1969 job (6.36**)			
Less than 1 year	135	22.5	22.1
1-5 years	212	14.2	12.6
6-9 years	236	10.1	10.0
10-14 years	223	6.9	8.1
15 years or more	233	2.6	4.5
NA	151	13.7	11.4
Relative educational attainment (1.68)			
Mean minus 2+ years	142	13.9	12.6
Mean minus 1-1.9 years	124	18.4	17.4
Mean ± 0.9 years	559	9.3	9.9
Mean plus 1-1.9 years	135	10.4	9.9
Mean plus 2+ years	113	7.7	6.9
NA	117	8.7	9.1
Relative hourly earnings, 1969 (1.93)			
Mean minus $1.00+/hour	48	15.2	13.0
Mean minus $0.50 - $0.99/hour	167	16.1	14.6
Mean ± $0.49/hour	585	11.7	11.0
Mean plus $0.50 - $0.99/hour	129	4.5	5.4
Mean plus $1.00/hour	87	1.6	6.1
NA	174	9.2	10.7

** Significant at $\alpha \leq .01$.

a See footnote a, Table 7A-1a.

b See footnote b, Table 7A-1a.

Table 7A-2b Unadjusted and Adjusted[a] Proportions of Part-Time Workers[b] Making Voluntary Job Change, 1969 to 1971, by Selected Characteristics

MCA results (F-ratios in parentheses)

Characteristic	Number of respondents	Unadjusted percent	Adjusted percent
Total sample (1.50)	334	20.9	20.9
$\bar{R}^2 = 0.035$			
Age, 1972 (1.68)			
35-39	127	26.9	25.5
40-44	98	19.4	20.3
45-49	109	15.1	15.9
Race (0.11)			
White	271	21.2	21.1
Black	63	16.1	18.3
Family status, 1969 (0.99)			
MSP, child(ren) under 18	243	20.2	19.4
Non-MSP, child(ren) under 18	41	22.9	19.8
MSP, no child(ren) under 18	36	24.4	31.7
Non-MSP, no child(ren) under 18	14	c	c
Job satisfaction, 1969 (2.75*)			
Likes job very much	190	16.2	15.4
Likes job somewhat	96	26.9	27.8
Dislikes job	21	c	c
NA	27	22.3	25.6
Tenure in 1969 job (3.61**)			
Less than 1 year	35	31.2	31.8
1-5 years	107	24.0	22.4
6-9 years	59	16.6	15.4
10-14 years	34	7.5	9.1
15 years or more	29	2.1	0.8
NA	70	28.4	31.0
Relative educational attainment (0.85)			
Mean minus 2+ years	34	19.6	12.9
Mean minus 1-1.9 years	34	14.8	14.8
Mean ± 0.9 years	155	21.7	21.4
Mean plus 1-1.9 years	50	28.2	29.2
Mean plus 2+ years	31	14.8	21.2
NA	30	18.1	17.4
Relative hourly earnings, 1969 (1.08)			
Mean minus $1.00+/hour	31	21.3	21.8
Mean minus $0.50 - $0.99/hour	52	27.1	29.2
Mean ± $0.49/hour	156	18.3	17.5
Mean plus $0.50 - $0.99/hour	27	28.3	30.6
Mean plus $1.00/hour	18	c	c
NA	50	18.8	19.4

* Significant at $\alpha \le .05$.

** Significant at $\alpha \le .01$.

[a] See footnote a, Table 7A-1a.

[b] See footnote b, Table 7A-1a.

[c] Percent not shown where base is smaller than 25 sample cases.

Table 7A-2c Unadjusted and Adjusted[a] Proportions of Respondents[b] Making Voluntary Job Change, 1969 to 1971, by Selected Characteristics Respondents with Stable Labor Force Attachment[b]

MCA results (F-ratios in parentheses)

Characteristic	Number of respondents	Unadjusted percent	Adjusted percent[a]
Total sample (4.20**)	1,413	10.8	10.8
$\bar{R}^2 = 0.056$			
Age, 1972 (5.36**)			
35-39	411	15.8	14.6
40-44	452	11.3	10.9
45-49	550	6.8	8.0
Race (0.71)			
White	985	11.0	11.1
Black	428	9.6	9.0
Family status, 1969 (0.02)			
MSP, child(ren) under 18	770	11.9	10.8
Non-MSP, child(ren) under 18	217	12.7	11.1
MSP, no child(ren) under 18	216	7.7	10.4
Non-MSP, no child(ren) under 18	210	8.4	11.1
Hours in 1969 job[c] (1.42)			
Full-time	1,109	9.3	10.1
Part-time	283	16.1	13.4
Job satisfaction, 1969 (8.71**)			
Likes job very much	890	8.2	8.2
Likes job somewhat	410	14.5	14.7
Dislikes job	53	27.0	25.9
NA	60	13.1	11.4
Tenure in 1969 job (7.93**)			
Less than 1 year	157	20.5	20.7
1-5 years	286	15.7	13.8
6-9 years	274	8.5	8.5
10-14 years	245	6.3	7.4
15 years or more	248	2.0	4.1
NA	203	16.2	14.8
Relative educational attainment (1.17)			
Mean minus 2+ years	162	13.7	12.5
Mean minus 1-1.9 years	152	14.9	13.8
Mean ± 0.9 years	659	10.2	11.0
Mean plus 1-1.9 years	164	13.1	11.8
Mean plus 2+ years	142	7.7	7.4
NA	134	7.6	6.9

Table continued on next page.

Table 7A-2c - continued.

Characteristic	Number of respondents	Unadjusted percent	Adjusted percent[a]
Relative hourly earnings, 1969 (1.02)			
Mean minus $1.00+/hour	70	14.6	12.3
Mean minus $0.50 - $0.99/hour	201	14.7	13.7
Mean ± $0.49/hour	682	11.9	10.9
Mean plus $0.50 - $0.99/hour	140	6.5	7.8
Mean plus $1.00+/hour	100	3.4	6.9
NA	220	9.1	11.4

** Significant at $\alpha \leq .01$.

[a] See footnote a, Table 7A-1a.

[b] In addition to the universe restriction described in footnote b, Table 7A-1a, the universe in this table is further restricted to women who had not absented themselves from the labor force between the survey dates in 1969 and 1971 for longer than 12 weeks (24 weeks in the case of teachers). See text footnote 16.

[c] See footnote c, Table 7A-1a.

Table 7A-3a Unadjusted and Adjusted[a] Percentage Change in Average Hourly Earnings 1969 to 1971, by Comparative Job Status and Selected Other Characteristics: Respondents Employed Full-Time 1969 and 1971[b]

MCA results (F-ratios in parentheses)

Characteristic	Number of respondents	Percent change (unadjusted)	Percent change (adjusted)[a]
Total sample (9.56**)	1,125	18.9	18.9
$\bar{R}^2 = 0.070$			
Comparative job status, 1969-1971 (0.32)			
Same employer	961	18.7	19.1
Voluntary job change	117	20.8	17.4
Involuntary job change	47	19.5	18.2
Race (0.02)			
White	758	18.5	19.0
Black	367	21.2	18.7
Comparative occupation category, 1969-1971 (0.94)			
Same 3-digit code	801	18.3	18.5
Different 3-digit code	324	20.4	19.9
Migrant status, 1969-1971 (2.20)			
Same SMSA or county	1,094	18.8	18.7
Different SMSA or county	31	23.0	24.6
Training, 1969-1971 (10.95**)			
Some	260	21.1	23.0
None	865	18.3	17.7
Average hourly earnings, 1969 (23.41**)			
Less than $1.50	109	40.4	41.2
$1.50-$1.99	280	20.1	20.6
$2.00-$2.49	267	19.1	19.3
$2.50-$3.24	266	15.6	15.6
$3.25 or more	203	14.4	13.3

** Significant at $\alpha \leq .01$.

a Universe consists of respondents employed as wage and salary workers in nonagricultural and nondomestic service jobs in the survey weeks of 1969 and 1971.

b Adjusted for the effects of all the variables shown in the stub of the table. For method of adjustment, see text.

Table 7A-3b Unadjusted and Adjusted[a] Percentage Changes in Average Hourly Earnings, 1969 to 1971, by Comparatave Job Status and Selected Other Characteristics: Respondents Employed Part-Time 1969 and/or 1971[b]

MCA results (F-ratios in parentheses)

Characteristic	Number of respondents	Percent change (unadjusted)	Percent change (adjusted)[a]
Total sample (6.96**)			
$\bar{R}^2 = 0.178$	303	25.4	25.4
Comparative job status, 1969-1971 (3.54*)			
Same employer	225	20.4	22.8
Voluntary job change	58	50.4	41.6
Involuntary job change	20	d	d
Race (1.64)			
White	248	26.1	26.6
Black	55	16.8	9.8
Comparative occupation category, 1969-1971 (0.29)			
Same 3-digit code	187	22.9	24.0
Different 3-digit code	116	29.6	27.8
Migrant status, 1969-1971[c] (0.25)			
Same SMSA or county	294	24.7	25.2
Different SMSA or county	8	d	d
Training, 1969-1971 (2.39)			
Some	67	26.7	35.2
None	236	25.1	22.6
Average hourly earnings, 1969 (16.61**)			
Less than $1.50	60	86.2	87.7
$1.50-$1.99	90	15.6	15.1
$2.00-$2.49	58	19.4	18.3
$2.50-$3.24	48	11.3	13.5
$3.25 or more	47	5.6	4.2

* Significant at $\alpha \leq .05$.

** Significant at $\alpha \leq .01$.

[a] Adjusted for the effects of all the variables shown in the stub of the table. For method of adjustment, see text.

[b] Universe consists of respondents employed as wage and salary workers in nonagricultural and nondomestic service jobs in the survey weeks of 1969 and 1971.

[c] The small number of cases for which information on the variable was not ascertained were included in the analysis but are not reported.

[d] Percentage not shown where number of sample cases is smaller than 25.

Table 7A-4a Unadjusted and Adjusted[a] Proportions of Respondents[b] Highly Satisfied with Their Jobs, 1972, by Comparative Job Status and Selected Other Characteristics: Respondents Employed Full-Time 1969 and 1971[a]

MCA results (F-ratios in parentheses)

Characteristic	Number of respondents	Percent highly satisfied (unadjusted)	Percent highly satisfied (adjusted)[a]
Total sample (17.97**) $\bar{R}^2 = 0.113$	1,072	57.9	57.9
Comparative job status, 1969-1971 (1.62)			
Same employer	919	59.6	58.7
Voluntary job change	112	51.9	56.3
Involuntary job change	41	37.5	45.9
Job satisfaction, 1969 (57.93**)			
Liked job very much	665	68.8	68.3
Other	356	33.9	35.2
NA	51	69.2	68.0
Race (1.89)			
White	729	59.1	58.7
Black	343	50.3	53.0
Comparative occupation category, 1969-1971 (0.64)			
Same 3-digit	760	59.8	58.7
Different 3-digit	312	53.5	56.2
Migrant status, 1969-1971[c] (0.05)			
Same SMSA or county	1,044	58.0	58.0
Different SMSA or county	28	54.6	56.2
Training, 1969-1971 (7.41**)			
Some	268	67.3	64.6
None	804	54.8	55.7

** Significant at $\alpha \leq .01$.

[a] Adjusted for the effects of all the variables shown in the stub of the table. For method of adjustment, see text.

[b] Universe consists of respondents employed as wage and salary workers in nonagricultural and nondomestic service jobs in the survey weeks of 1969 and 1971.

[c] The small number of cases for which information in the variable was not ascertained were included in the analyses but are not reported.

Table 7A-4b Unadjusted and Adjusted[a] Proportions of Respondents Highly Satisfied with Their Jobs, 1972, by Comparative Job Status and Selected Other Characteristics: Respondents Employed Part-Time 1969 and/or 1971[b]

MCA results (F-ratios in parentheses)

Characteristic	Number of respondents	Percent highly satisfied (unadjusted)	Percent highly satisfied (adjusted)[a]
Total sample (3.76**)	287	55.6	55.6
$\bar{R}^2 = 0.080$			
Comparative job status, 1969-1971 (1.71)			
Same employer	216	56.1	55.7
Voluntary job change	53	58.2	60.7
Involuntary job change	18	d	d
Job satisfaction, 1969 (15.12**)			
Liked job very much	165	66.9	66.9
Other	92	33.4	33.1
NA	30	62.0	62.5
Race (0.33)			
White	232	55.7	55.1
Black	55	54.5	61.4
Comparative occupation category, 1969-1971 (0.16)			
Same 3-digit	175	54.6	54.7
Different 3-digit	112	57.1	57.0
Migrant status, 1969-1971[c] (0.39)			
Same SMSA or county	280	55.9	55.8
Different SMSA or county	6	d	d
Training, 1969-1971 (0.01)			
Some	65	59.8	56.0
None	222	54.3	55.4

** Significant at $\alpha \le .01$.

[a] Adjusted for the effects of all the variables shown in the stub of the table. For method of adjustment, see text.

[b] Universe consists of respondents employed as wage and salary workers in nonagricultural and nondomestic service jobs in the survey weeks of 1969 and 1971.

[c] The small number of cases for which information in the variable was not ascertained were included in the analysis but are not reported.

[d] Percentage not shown where number of sample cases is smaller than 25.

APPENDIX B

GLOSSARY

This glossary defines all of the variables that have been used in the analysis in this volume. So far as possible, all variations in acronyms for individual variables are included. "Item numbers" refer to the interview schedules in Appendix D. References without a date are to the 1972 schedule.

APPENDIX B

GLOSSARY

ADULT RELATIVE

A binary variable indicating that there was at least one individual 18 years of age or older living in the respondent's household who was related to the respondent.

AGE

Age of the respondent as of her last birthday prior to April 1, 1972, unless otherwise indicated.

AGE DISTRIBUTION OF CHILDREN: See AGE OF YOUNGEST CHILD

AGE OF YOUNGEST CHILD

Respondents were divided into four categories according to the age of the youngest of the respondent's own children living in the household at the time of a survey, irrespective of the possible presence of older children living at home or the existence of children not residing with the respondent at a survey date.

Child Under 6

Includes all women whose youngest child was under six years of age.

Child 6 to 13

Includes all women whose youngest child was between 6 and 13 years of age.

Child 14 to 17

Includes all women whose youngest child was between 14 and 17 years of age.

No Children or Children 18 or Older

Includes all women with no children or children 18 or older living at home.

ANNUAL EARNINGS: See WAGE AND SALARY INCOME

ANNUAL FAMILY EARNINGS

The wage, salary, and net self employment income received by the respondent, her husband, or other family members in the calendar year preceding the survey week. It is measured in actual dollar amounts.

ATTITUDE TOWARD JOB

The respondent's report of her feelings toward her job at the time of interview when confronted with the following four alternatives: "like it very much, like it fairly well, dislike it somewhat, dislike it very much." [See item 34, 1972 schedule.]

ATTITUDE TOWARD MARKET WORK

An index summarizing the respondent's attitude toward the propriety of a married woman with young school-aged children working outside the home. In 1967 and 1972, respondents were asked about their attitudes toward a married woman with children between the ages 6 and 12 working outside the home under three circumstances: first, if economically necessary; second, if she wanted to and her husband agreed; and third, if she wanted to and her husband disagreed. There were five possible answers to each question ranged on a Likert scale from "definitely not all right" to "definitely all right." The composite index was obtained by summing the responses to the three questions. The resulting index ranged from a value of 3 (most unfavorable) to a value of 15 (most favorable). A favorable attitude is defined as codes 12 through 15; an unfavorable attitude is defined as codes 3 through 9; an ambivalent attitude consists of codes 10 through 11. See items 66a, 66b, and 66c in the 1967 schedule and items 42a, 42b, and 42c in the 1972 schedule.

AVERAGE HOURLY EARNINGS

Usual gross rate of compensation per hour on job held by a wage and salary worker during the survey week. If a time unit other than an hour was reported, hourly rates were computed by first converting the reported figure into a weekly rate and then dividing by the number of hours usually worked per week on the job.

AVERAGE WORK EXPERIENCE

This is a veriable indicating the average number of years a particular category of women worked at least six months between completion of formal schooling and 1967, 1969, or 1971. [See YEARS WORKED.]

BAD HEALTH

A binary variable indicating that a respondent's health limited the amount or kind of work outside the home in which she could engage. [See HEALTH CONDITION.]

BLACK

A binary variable indicating that the respondent is Negro. [See RACE.]

BOSE INDEX OF SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS

An ordinal measure of the prestige of an occupation, developed from the responses of a sample of 197 white households in the Baltimore Metropolitan Area to questions about the prestige of 110 selected occupations. These rankings within each occupation were averaged and the mean values transformed to a metric with values 0 to 100. The latter scores were regressed on the 1959 median earnings and 1960 median years of school completed of the civilian experienced female labor force employed in these occupations. The resultant equation was then used to estimate the mean prestige scores for occupations in which women in the NLS sample were represented. [See Christine E. Bose. *Jobs and Gender: Sex and Occupational Prestige*. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1973, Appendix E.]

BOTH INFANT AND PRESCHOOLER

A binary variable indicating that the respondent had both a child under 3 years of age and one 3 to 5 years of age living in the household.

CAREER: See text, Chapter III, pp. 58-60.

CENTER CARE: See DAY CARE CENTER

CHANGE IN FAMILY'S EARNINGS, 1966-1971

Actual dollar amount difference in the respondent's and her husband's income from wages, salary, commission, tips, and net self employment income in calendar year 1966 and calendar year 1971. Respondents' husbands reporting incomes of less than $1,000 in either 1966 or in 1971 were excluded from the regression analysis.

CHANGE IN WIFE'S WEEKS WORKED, 1966-1971

Actual difference between the total number of weeks worked by the respondent in the 12-month period prior to the 1967 and 1972 survey dates. [See WEEKS EMPLOYED.]

CHILD 0-5

A binary variable indicating that the respondent has at least one child less than six years of age living in her household.

CHILD CARE

Refers to an arrangement made by a mother who works outside the home for the care of her child(ren) during the time she is away from the home. The arrangements include care within the woman's home by a relative or a nonrelative, care outside the woman's home by a relative, a nonrelative, or a day care center. See items 21a, 21b, 21c, and 21d in the 1967 schedule. [See DAY CARE CENTER, NONFAMILY CARE and CENTER CARE.]

CHILDREN: See NUMBER OF CHILDREN

CHILDREN AGED 6-18

A binary variable indicating that the respondent had at least one son or daughter between 6 and 18 years of age living in the household.

CLASS OF WORKER

Wage and Salary Worker

A person working for a rate of pay per unit-time, commission, tips, payment in kind, or piece rate for a private employer or government unit.

Self-employed Worker

A person working in her own unincorporated business, profession, or trade, or operating a farm for profit or fees.

Unpaid Family Worker

A person working without pay on a farm or in a business operated by a member of the household to whom she is related by blood or marriage.

COLBAR

A binary variable indicating that a respondent's wages in her survey week job were set by collective bargaining.

COMPARATIVE JOB STATUS

Comparative job status is based on a comparison of the employer for whom the respondent worked at two specified survey dates. Respondents are classified into two major categories: "same employer" and "different employer." The latter category is further divided according to whether the job change was voluntary or involuntary. Where a worker has several jobs between the two survey dates in question, the reason for the separation from the job held in the earlier survey week is used to classify the change as voluntary or involuntary.

COMPARATIVE LABOR MARKET STATUS: See STAYER, ENTRANT, EXITER

COMPARATIVE OCCUPATION CATEGORY

A comparison of the respondent's 3-digit occupational codes in the two reference periods.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYER: See COMPARATIVE JOB STATUS

DAY CARE CENTER

This refers to private or public sponsored centers or homes which are organized to care for groups of children. These include prekindergartens organized by the school system, nursery schools, day care centers, settlement houses, church sponsored facilities, group care facilities available at the respondent's place of employment, or residential homes which care for children on a regular paid basis; kindergartens are excluded. The terms "private" and "public" refer to the sponsorship or ownership of the day care facility and not its sources of funding. For example, "private" centers may receive state and federal revenue assistance and "public" centers revenue from parent fee payments.

DEMAND FOR FEMALE LABOR

An indicator of the extent to which the industrial structure of a community provides jobs normally held by women. The index was calculated for each PSU by multiplying the number employed (in 1960) in each of the industries within the PSU by the national fraction of that industry's employment represented by women, summing the individual products, and then dividing the resultant sum by the total civilian employment in the PSU (excluding the category "industry not reported.") [See PSU.]

EDUCATION: See HIGHEST YEAR OF SCHOOL COMPLETED

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT: See HIGHEST YEAR OF SCHOOL COMPLETED

EMNC

A binary variable indicating that a respondent has ever been married and has never had (acquired) children. [See MARITAL STATUS.]

EMPLOYED: See LABOR FORCE AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS

EMPLOYED WIFE, 1967

A binary variable indicating the respondent was both married and employed at the 1967 survey date. [See LABOR FORCE AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS and MARITAL STATUS.]

EMPLOYER CHANGE: See COMPARATIVE JOB STATUS

EMWC

A binary variable indicating that a respondent has ever been married and has ever borne (acquired) children. [See MARITAL STATUS.]

ENTRANT

A binary variable indicating that a respondent who was out of the labor force in time t-1 had entered the labor force by time t.

ENTRY RATE

The ratio of women who had entered the labor force by a specific survey date to all those out of the labor force at some previous survey date (expressed in percentage terms).

EVER TRAIN

A binary variable indicating that the respondent had completed a training program aside from regular schooling either prior to 1967 or between 1967 and 1972. [See OCCUPATIONAL TRAINING.]

EXIT RATE

The ratio of women who had left the labor force by a specific survey date to all those in the labor force at some previous survey date (expressed in percentage terms).

EXITER

A binary variable indicating that a respondent who was in the labor force in time t-1 had left the labor force by time t. [See LABOR FORCE AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS.]

EXPERIENCE

A series of variables representing a respondent's work history. [See TENURE, WEEKS WORKED, and YEARS WORKED.]

FAMILY EARNINGS, 1966

The actual dollar amount of the respondent's and her husband's income from wages, salary, tips, commissions, and net self-employment income during calendar year 1966. Respondents whose husbands earned less than $1,000 were excluded from the regression analysis.

FAMILY INCOME

Income from all sources (including wages and salaries, net income from business or farm, pensions, dividends, interest, rent, royalties, social insurance, and public assistance) received by any family member living in the household of the respondent in the calendar year preceding the survey week. Income of nonrelatives living in the household is not included.

FEM OCC

A binary variable indicating that a respondent is in a typically female occupation. [See FEMALE OCCUPATION, OCCUPATION'S SEX LABEL, TYPICALLY MALE, or TYPICALLY FEMALE.]

FEMALE OCCUPATION

A continuous variable derived from the 1970 Census of Population data which compares the degree of representation of women in a 3-digit occupation and their representation in the experienced civilian labor force. A negative difference indicates a smaller-than-average proportion of women in the occupation; a positive difference implies a greater-than-average proportion.

FULL TIME EMPLOYMENT

A minimum of 35 hours usually worked per week on current job.

HEALTH CONDITION

On the basis of respondents' assessment of whether their health or physical condition prevents them from working or limits the kind and/or amount of work they can do, they are classified into two groups: those whose health affects work and those with no health limitations affecting work.

HIGH JOB SATISFACTION

A binary variable indicating that the respondent reported that she liked her survey week job very much. [See ATTITUDE TOWARD JOB and JOB.]

HIGH SKILL

A binary variable representing codes 6-8 in the "Specific Vocational Preparation" index. [See OCCUPATION'S SKILL REQUIREMENT.]

HIGHEST YEAR OF SCHOOL COMPLETED

The highest year of "regular" school completed by the respondent--from 0 to 18--as of the survey week in 1967. "Regular" schools include graded public, private, and parochial elementary and secondary schools; colleges; universities; and professional schools.

HOURLY EARNINGS: See AVERAGE HOURLY EARNINGS

HOURS USUALLY WORK PER WEEK

The number of hours per week the respondent usually works in her survey week job. [See JOB.]

HUSBAND'S AGE

The actual age of the respondent's husband as of April 1, 1972, unless otherwise indicated.

HUSBAND'S ATTITUDE

A binary variable indicating that the respondent reported that her husband has a favorable attitude toward her working. See item 67 in the 1967 schedule and item 42d in the 1972 schedule.

HUSBAND'S EARNINGS, 1966

The actual dollar amount of income from wages, salary, commission, tips, and net self employment income received by the respondent's husband in calendar year 1966. Husbands reporting less than $1,000 in earnings for calendar year 1966 were excluded from the regression analysis.

HUSBAND'S EDUCATION, 1967

The highest year of "regular" school--from 0 to 18--completed by respondent's husband as of the survey week, 1967.

INCIDENCE OF TRAINING: See OCCUPATIONAL TRAINING

INFANT

A binary variable indicating that the respondent's youngest child living in the household was 0 to 2 years of age.

INTEREST IN WORKING

A binary variable indicating that a respondent who was out of the labor force at the 1971 survey date would take a job in her area of residence if offered to her. See item 30a in the 1967 schedule and item 30b in the 1972 schedule.

INTRA-FIRM TRANSFERS, 1968-1971

A binary variable indicating that the reason for the respondent's change in county or SMSA of residence between any two survey dates was related to the geographical transfer of the husband's job with his base year employer. See item 91b in the 1972 schedule.

INVOLUNTARY JOB CHANGE

A job separation initiated by the employer, as in a layoff, the ending of a temporary job, or a discharge. [See COMPARATIVE JOB STATUS.]

JOB

A continuous period of service with a given employer.

Current or Last Job

For respondents who were employed during the survey week, the job held during the survey week. For respondents who were either unemployed or not in the labor force during the survey week, the most recent job.

JOB ATTITUDE: See ATTITUDE TOWARD JOB

JOB SATISFACTION: See ATTITUDE TOWARD JOB

LABOR FORCE AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS

In the Labor Force

All respondents who were either employed or unemployed during the survey week:

Employed

All respondents who during the survey week were either (1) "at work"--those who did any work for pay or profit or worked without pay for 15 hours or more on a family farm or business; or (2) "with a job but not at work"--those who did not work and were not looking for work, but had a job or business from which they were temporarily absent because of vacation, illness, industrial dispute, bad weather, or because they were taking time off for various other reasons.

Unemployed

All respondents who did not work at all during the survey week and (1) either were looking or had looked for a job in the four-week period prior to the survey; (2) were waiting to be recalled to a job from which they had been laid off; or (3) were waiting to report to a new job within 30 days.

Out of Labor Force

All respondents who were neither employed nor unemployed during the survey week.

LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE

The proportion of the total civilian noninstitutional population or of a subgroup of that population classified as "in the labor force." [See LABOR FORCE AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS.]

LFPR: See LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE

LIKELIHOOD OF MIGRATION

A binary variable indicating that the respondent's place of residence (county or SMSA) on at least one post-1967 survey date was different from the place of residence as of the 1967 survey date.

LIKELIHOOD OF SEARCHING

A binary variable indicating that the respondent said in the 1971 survey that she would unconditionally look for work if provided with a free day care center or home. Refers only to respondents out of the labor force with at least one child under 18 years of age.

LOW SKILL

A binary variable representing codes 2-3 in the "Specific Vocational Preparation" index. [See OCCUPATION'S SKILL REQUIREMENT.]

MARITAL STATUS

Respondents were classified into the following categories: married, spouse present; married, spouse absent; divorced; separated; widowed; and never married. When the term "married" is used in this report, it refers only to the first of these categories.

MC

A binary variable indicating that a respondent [whose first (or only) marriage occurred after completion of formal schooling and whose first (or only) child was born (or acquired) after the year of her marriage] worked at least six months during one or more of the years between her marriage and the birth (acquisition) of her first child.

MEDIUM SKILL

A binary variable representing codes 4-5 in the "Specific Vocational Preparation" index. [See OCCUPATION'S SKILL REQUIREMENT.]

MIGRANT, 1967-1971: See MIGRATION DUMMY and MIGRANT STATUS

MIGRANT, 1969-1971

A binary variable indicating that the respondent's place of residence (county or SMSA) at the 1971 survey date was different from her place of residence at the 1969 survey date. [See MIGRANT STATUS.]

MIGRANT STATUS

A comparison of the respondent's place of residence at two different survey dates. Individuals who remain in the same SMSA or county are classified as "nonmigrants or stayers"; those who cross county or SMSA boundaries are classified as "migrants or movers." [See SMSA.]

MIGRATION DUMMY

A binary variable indicating that the respondent's county or SMSA in 1968, 1969, or 1971 was different from her county or SMSA as of the 1967 survey date. [See MIGRANT STATUS.]

MSP

A binary variable indicating that the respondent was married with her spouse present in the household. [See MARITAL STATUS.]

MULTIPLE MIGRANT

A binary variable indicating that the respondent had changed counties or SMSA's more than once between 1967 and 1971. [See MIGRANT STATUS.]

NMC

A binary variable indicating that a respondent [whose first (or only) marriage occurred after completion of formal schooling and whose first (or only) child was born (or acquired) after the year of her marriage] did not work at least six months during one or more of the years between her marriage and the birth (acquisition) of her first child.

NO CHILDREN AGED 6-18

A binary variable indicating that the respondent did not have a son or a daughter 6 to 18 years of age living in the household.

NONFAMILY CARE

A binary variable indicating that the respondent utilized one of the following modes of child care during the time she worked outside the home: a nonrelative in the child's home; in the home of a nonrelative; a nonrelative-relative combination; public or private day care center; any arrangement combined with a public or private day care center; enrollment in a school-sponsored pre-kindergarten or kindergarten program; or a school-sponsored program combined with any other mode of care. [See CHILD CARE.]

NONMARRIED

A binary variable indicating that the respondent was married, spouse absent; divorced; separated; widowed; or never married. [See MARITAL STATUS.]

NSM

A binary variable indicating that a respondent, who has ever been married, did not work at least six months during one or more years between completion of formal schooling and her first (or only) marriage.

NUMBER OF CHILDREN

The actual number of the respondent's sons and daughters under the age of 18 living in her household.

NUMBER OF DEPENDENTS

The number of persons who receive at least one-half of their support from the respondent (or her husband), including children, parents, and other relatives, whether or not they reside in the household.

NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS

The actual number of individuals (including the respondent) living in the household who were related by blood or marriage to the respondent.

OCCUPATIONAL TRAINING

In the 1967 survey, respondents were asked about training or educational programs they had ever taken "aside from regular school." For each type (e.g., business college or technical school, company training school lasting two weeks or more, other formal vocational training, and general education) respondents were asked the kind and duration of the training and whether it was used on their current (or last) job. See items 79-81 in the 1967 schedule.

In subsequent surveys, respondents were asked whether they had taken any training courses or educational programs of any kind since the previous survey. If so, information was collected on kind, source, and duration of program and whether it was used on current job. See item 62 in the 1972 schedule.

OCCUPATION'S SEX LABEL

An occupation was categorized as typically male or typically female by comparing the percentage of the experienced civilian labor force as of the 1970 Census of Population which was female (38.1 percent) with the percentage of an occupation's incumbents who were female.

Any occupation in 1970 in which at least 43.1 percent (38.1 + 5 percent) of the incumbents were women is defined as a "typically female" occupation; any occupation in 1970 in which 33.1 percent (38.1 - 5 percent) or less of the incumbents were women is defined as a "typically male" occupation. Also see Chapter IV, Appendix A for a further discussion of this variable. [See FEMALE OCCUPATION.]

OCCUPATION'S SEX TYPE: See FEMALE OCCUPATION and OCCUPATION'S SEX LABEL

OCCUPATION'S SKILL REQUIREMENT

An index representing the varying amounts of time normally required for a person to become proficient in an occupation. The variable is based upon the index of "Specific Vocational Preparation" (SVP), which ranges from 1 to 9, found in the Supplement to the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (3rd edition), 1966.

OTHER

A binary variable indicating that a respondent, who has ever been married, was married either prior to or during the year in which she completed formal schooling.

OUT

A binary variable indicating that a respondent was out of the labor force in time t-1 and in time t. [See LABOR FORCE AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS.]

OUT OF LABOR FORCE: See LABOR FORCE AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS

PART TIME

A binary variable indicating that a respondent usually worked a maximum of 34 hours per week on her survey week job.

PER CAPITA FAMILY EARNINGS [EXCLUDING RESPONDENT'S EARNINGS]

Annual family earnings in actual dollar amounts excluding the respondent's wage and salary income divided by the number of dependents (inclusive of the respondent and husband). [See ANNUAL FAMILY EARNINGS and NUMBER OF DEPENDENTS.]

PERCEPTION OF PROGRESS

Responses to the 1972 question "All in all, so far as your work is concerned, would you say that you've progressed during the past five years, moved backward, or just about held your own?" See Item 53a.

POST-CHILD WORK EXPERIENCE

A variable indicating the proportion of years that a respondent has worked at least six months between the year of birth (acquisition) of her first (or only) child and 1967.

POST-MARRIAGE WORK EXPERIENCE

A variable indicating the proportion of years that a respondent has worked at least six months between her first (or only) marriage and 1967.

POST-SCHOOL WORK EXPERIENCE: See YEARS WORKED

PRESCHOOLER

A binary variable indicating that the respondent's youngest child living in the household was 3 to 5 years of age.

PRIVATE

A binary variable indicating that a respondent was working for a private employer as a wage and salary worker. [See CLASS OF WORKER.]

PROPENSITY TO CHANGE JOBS

This construct is measured by means of a hypothetical question asked of all employed respondents in 1972: "Suppose someone in this area offered you a job in the same line of work you are in now. How much would the new job have to pay for you to be willing to take it?" Each response has been expressed as a percentage of actual earnings in the current job, and the resulting figure is taken as a measure of the relative attachment of an individual to her current employer or, what amounts to the same thing, of her readiness to move, given the perception of a similar job offering higher pay. See item 37.

PSU (PRIMARY SAMPLING UNIT)

One of the 235 areas of the country from which the sample for this study was drawn; usually an SMSA (Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area) or a county.

RACE

"Blacks" refer to Negroes, "Whites" to Caucasians. Other racial groups are excluded from all analysis in this report.

REAL AVERAGE HOURLY EARNINGS

Average hourly earnings in survey week job expressed in May 1972 dollars using the Consumer Price Indices for the month of May of each survey year. [See AVERAGE HOURLY EARNINGS.]

REAL WAGE AND SALARY INCOME

Wage and salary earnings of the respondent in calendar years 1966, 1968, 1970, and 1971 expressed in 1971 dollars using the average of the twelve monthly Consumer Price Indices in each of these years. [see WAGE AND SALARY INCOME.]

RELATIVE EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

This variable compares the respondent's educational attainment and the mean educational attainment of all respondents in the same 3-digit occupation code and race category. A negative difference indicates a below-average attainment by the respondent while a positive difference denotes an above-average attainment. [See YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED.]

RELATIVE HOURLY EARNINGS

This variable compares the respondent's average hourly earnings and the mean average hourly earnings of all respondents in the same 3-digit occupation code and race category. A negative difference indicates below-average hourly earnings while a positive difference denotes above-average compensation. [See AVERAGE HOURLY EARNINGS.]

SEX LABEL: See FEMALE OCCUPATION and OCCUPATION'S SEX LABEL

SIZE

A variable indicating the size (in 1960) of the civilian labor force in the local area in which a respondent resided in 1972. Measured in thousands of persons.

SKILL: See OCCUPATION'S SKILL REQUIREMENT

SKILL REQUIREMENT: See OCCUPATION'S SKILL REQUIREMENT

SM

A binary variable indicating that a respondent who has been married worked at least six months during one or more years between completion of formal schooling and her first (or only) marriage.

SMSA

Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area.

SMSA CENTRAL CITY

A binary variable indicating that the respondent resided in the central or major city within a SMSA. [See SMSA.]

SMSA NONCENTRAL CITY

A binary variable indicating that the respondent resided in a SMSA but not in its central or major city. [See SMSA.]

SOUTH

A binary variable indicating the respondent resided in one of the following Census Divisions: South Atlantic, East South Central, or West South Central.

SPACING OF CHILDREN

The mean number of years between birth (acquisition) of the respondent's children. It is generally computed by dividing the total number of children of the respondent into the number of years that have elapsed between her (first) marriage and the birth of the youngest child currently living in her household. In the case of respondents with only one child it is the number of years between (first) marriage and the birth of this child.

STAYER

A binary variable indicating that a respondent was in the labor force both in time t-1 and time t. [See LABOR FORCE and EMPLOYMENT STATUS.]

SURVEY WEEK

The term "survey week" denotes the calendar week preceding the date of interview. In the conventional parlance of the Bureau of the Census, it means the "reference week."

TEENAGED CHILD

A binary variable indicating that the respondent had at least one son or daughter who was 14 to 17 years of age residing in her household.

TENURE

The number of years of service with the respondent's survey week employer.

TRAINING

A binary variable indicating that the respondent had participated in a training program aside from regular schooling prior to 1967 or between 1967 and 1972. [See OCCUPATIONAL TRAINING.]

TYPICALLY FEMALE

A binary variable indicating that in 1970 at least 43.1 percent of the incumbents of the occupation were female. [See FEMALE OCCUPATION and OCCUPATION'S SEX LABEL.]

TYPICALLY MALE

A binary variable indicating that in 1970 33.1 percent or fewer of the incumbents of the occupation were female. [See FEMALE OCCUPATION and OCCUPATION'S SEX LABEL.]

UNEMPLOYED: See LABOR FORCE AND EMPLOYMENT STATUS

UNEMPLOYMENT RATE

Rate of unemployment in the local area in which the respondent resides. The rate is based on the 12-month average for the specified year obtained from the CPS for that area.

VOLUNTARY JOB CHANGE (SEPARATION)

A binary variable indicating that the respondent had left her 1969 survey week employer for voluntary reasons during the period 1969 to 1971. [See COMPARATIVE JOB STATUS.]

WAGE AND SALARY INCOME

The wage and salary income received by the respondent in the calendar year preceding the survey week. It is measured in actual dollar amounts.

WAGE AND SALARY WORKER: See CLASS OF WORKER

WDS

A binary variable indicating that the respondent was widowed, divorced, or separated.

WEEKS EMPLOYED

The number of weeks in a 12-month period in which the respondent reported that she was employed.

WEEKS IN THE LABOR FORCE

The number of weeks in a 12-month period that the respondent reported that she either worked, looked for work, or was on layoff from a job. [See WEEKS EMPLOYED and WEEKS UNEMPLOYED.]

WEEKS UNEMPLOYED

The number of weeks in a 12-month period that the respondent reported she was not working but looking for work or on layoff from a job.

WEEKS WORKED

A variable indicating the number of weeks a respondent was employed between the 1968 and 1972 surveys.

WEST

A binary variable indicating that the respondent resided in either the Mountain Census Division or the Pacific Census Division.

WIFE'S EARNINGS, 1966

The actual dollar amount of income from wages, salary, commissions, and tips received by the respondent in calendar year 1966.

WIFE'S JOB TENURE, 1967

The actual number of years of service with the respondent's 1967 survey week employer.

WIFE'S TENURE SQUARED

The square of the actual number of years of service with the respondent's 1967 survey week employer.

WILLING TO USE CENTER CARE

A binary variable indicating that the respondent either expressed a preference for center care over her current child care arrangement or stated that she would be willing to leave her child(ren) in a day care center if one were available to her at a cost no greater than her current arrangement. [See DAY CARE CENTER and CHILD CARE.]

WORKED SOME SINCE 1969

A binary variable indicating that the respondent worked at least one week between the date of the 1969 interview (1968 interview date if not interviewed in 1969) and the date of the 1971 interview.

YEARS WORKED

In Chapter IV, a variable indicating the number of years a respondent worked at least six months between completion of formal schooling and 1967.

In Chapter V, a continuous variable summarizing the percent of years between completion of formal schooling and 1967 (or between 1967 and 1972) in which the respondent worked six months or more.

APPENDIX C

SAMPLING, INTERVIEWING AND ESTIMATING PROCEDURES

APPENDIX C

SAMPLING, INTERVIEWING AND ESTIMATING PROCEDURES

The Survey of Work Experience of Mature Women is one of four longitudinal surveys sponsored by the Employment and Training Administration of the U.S. Department of Labor. Taken together these surveys constitute the National Longitudinal Surveys. Each of the four NLS samples was designed by the United States Bureau of the Census to represent the civilian noninstitutional population of the United States at approximately the time of the initial survey. Because of attrition from the samples over the years of the surveys, they cannot be construed to be precisely representative of the civilian population in any year after the first.

The 1972 survey was the fourth personal interview conducted for the Survey of Work Experience of Mature Women.[1] The respondents were between the ages of 30 and 44 at the time of the first interview in 1967; thus, the age range in 1972 was 35 to 49.

Sample Design

The cohort is represented by a multi-stage probability sample located in 235 sample areas comprising 485 counties and independent cities representing every state and the District of Columbia. The 235 sample areas were selected by grouping all of the nation's counties and independent cities into about 1,900 primary sampling units (PSU's) and further forming 235 strata of one or more PSU's that are relatively homogeneous according to socioeconomic characteristics. Within each of the strata a single PSU was selected to represent the stratum. Within each PSU a probability sample of housing units was selected to represent the civilian noninstitutional population.

Since one of the survey requirements was to provide separate reliable statistics for blacks, households in predominantly black enumeration districts (ED's) were selected at a rate approximately three times that for households in predominantly white ED's. The sample was designed to provide approximately 5,000 respondents--about 1,500 blacks and 3,500 whites.

An initial sample of about 42,000 housing units was selected and a screening interview took place in March and April 1966. Of this number, about 7,500 units were found to be vacant, occupied by persons whose usual residence was elsewhere, changed from residential use, or demolished. On the other hand, about 900 additional units were found which had been created within existing living space or had been changed from what was previously nonresidential space. Thus, 35,360 housing units were available for interview, of which usable information was collected for 34,622 households, a completion rate of 98.0 percent.

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[1] Interviews were also conducted in 1969 and 1971. A brief mailed questionnaire was used in 1968.

Following the initial interview and screening operation, the sample was rescreened in the fall of 1966, immediately prior to the first survey of Work Experience of Males 14 to 24. For the rescreening operation, the sample was stratified by the presence or absence of a 14- to 24-year old male in the household. The rescreened sample was used to designate 5,392 women age 30 to 44 to be interviewed for the Survey of Work Experience. These were sampled differentially within four strata: whites in white ED's (i.e., ED's which contained predominantly white households), blacks in white ED's, whites in black ED's, and blacks in black ED's.

The Field Work

Over three hundred interviewers were assigned to each of the surveys. Since many of the procedures and the labor force concepts used in the NLS were similar to those employed in the Current Population Survey (CPS), the Census Bureau used only interviewers with CPS experience.

For the 1967 survey, a two-stage training program was used to provide specific instruction to the interviewers. First, two supervisors from each of the Bureau's 12 regional offices were trained in Washington; they in turn trained the interviewers and office clerks assigned to the survey in their regions. Each trainee was provided with a "verbatim" training guide prepared by the Bureau staff and reviewed by the Employment and Training Administration and the Center for Human Resource Research of The Ohio State University. The guide included not only lecture material, but a number of structured practice interviews to familiarize the interviewers with the questionnaire. For the 1972 survey, interviewing began on April 24 and continued until the end of June.

In addition to training, a field edit was instituted to insure adequate quality. In the 1967 survey, this consisted of a "full edit" of the first several schedules returned by each interviewer and a partial edit of the remaining questionnaires from each interviewer's assignment. The full edit consisted of reviewing the questionnaires from beginning to end, to determine if the entries were complete and consistent and whether the "skip" instructions were being followed. The interviewer was contacted by phone concerning minor problems and, depending on the nature of the problem, was either merely told of the error or asked to contact the respondent for additional information or for clarification. For more serious problems the interviewer was retrained either totally or in part, and the questionnaire was returned for completion.

If problems arose, the complete edit was continued until the supervisor was satisfied that the interviewer was doing a complete and consistent job. The partial edit simply checked to determine that the interviewer had not inadvertently skipped any part of the questionnaire which should have been filled. Any questionnaire which failed the partial edit was returned to the interviewer for completion. In the 1969, 1971, and 1972 surveys, a "full edit" was used on all the schedules.

Estimating Methods

The estimating procedure used in the NIS involved multi-stage ratio estimates.

Basic weight The first step was the assignment to each sample case of a basic weight consisting of the reciprocal of the final probability of selection. The probability reflects the differential sampling which was employed by color within each stratum.

Noninterview adjustment In the initial survey the weights for all those interviewed were adjusted to the extent needed to account for persons for whom no information was obtained because of absence, refusal, or unavailability for other reasons. This adjustment was made separately for each of 16 groupings: Census region of residence (Northeast, North Central, South, West) by residence (urban, rural), by color (white, black).

Ratio estimates The distribution of the population selected for the sample may differ somewhat, by chance, from that of the nation as a whole with respect to residence, age, color, and sex. Since these population characteristics are closely correlated with the principal measurements made from the sample, the measurements can be substantially improved when weighted appropriately to conform to the known distribution of these population characteristics. This was accomplished in the initial survey through two stages of ratio estimation.

The first stage of ratio estimation takes into account differences at the time of the 1960 Census between the distribution by color and residence of the population as estimated from the sample PSU's and that of the total population in each of the four major regions of the country. Using 1960 Census data, estimated population totals by color and residence for each region were computed by appropriately weighting the Census counts for PSU's in the sample. Ratios were then computed between these estimates (based on sample PSU's) and the actual population totals for the region as shown by the 1969 Census.

In the second stage, the sample proportions were adjusted to independent current estimates of the civilian noninstitutionalized population by age and color. These estimates were prepared by carrying forward the most recent Census data (1960) to take account of subsequent aging of the population, mortality, and migration between the United States and other countries. The adjustment was made by color within three age groupings.

Weights for subsequent years As a result of the above steps, each sample person has a weight which remains unchanged throughout the life of the study. The universe of study was thus fixed at the time of interview for the first survey. Since no reweighting of the sample was made after subsequent surveys, the group of interviewed persons is an unbiased sample of the population group in existence at the time of the first survey only. The number of women with whom initial interviews were conducted was 5,083.

Coding and Editing

Most of the data on the interview schedules required no coding, since a majority of the answers were numerical entries or in the form of precoded categories. However, clerical coding was necessary for the occupational and industrial classification of the several jobs referred to in the interview. The Census Bureau's standard occupation and industry codes used for the CPS were employed for this purpose. Codes for other open-ended questions were assigned by the Census Bureau, in some cases on the basis of guidelines developed by the Center for Human Resource Research from tallies of subsamples of the returns.

The consistency edits for the interview schedules were completed on the computer by the Census Bureau. For the parts of the questionnaire which were similar to the CPS, a modified CPS edit was used. For all other sections, separate consistency checks were performed. None of the edits included an allocation routine which was dependent on averages or random information from outside sources, since such allocated data could not be expected to be consistent with data from previous or subsequent surveys. However, where the answer to a question was obvious from others in the questionnaire, the missing answer was entered on the tape. To take an example from the initial (1967) survey, if item 21a ("Is it necessary for you to make any regular arrangements for the care of your children while you are working?") was blank, but legitimate entries appeared in 21b and c ("What arrangements have you made?" and "What is the cost of these arrangements?") a "Yes" was inserted in 21a. In this case, only if 21a was marked "Yes," could 21b and c be filled; therefore, the assumption was made that either the key punch operator failed to punch the item or the interviewer failed to mark it.

APPENDIX D

INTERVIEW SCHEDULES

The interview schedules for the 1967 and 1972 surveys are displayed in the following pages. Data used in the volume that are based on the 1969 or 1971 surveys were derived from questions identical or analogous to those included in these schedules.

Budget Bureau No. 41-R2395; Approval Expires April 30, 1968

FORM LGT-301
(3-20-67)

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
BUREAU OF THE CENSUS

NATIONAL LONGITUDINAL SURVEYS

SURVEY OF WORK EXPERIENCE OF WOMEN 30 – 44

1967

NOTICE – Your report to the Census Bureau is confidential by law (Title 13, U.S. Code). It may be seen only by sworn Census employees and may be used only for statistical purposes.

1. Control No.

2. Line number of respondent ____________

3. Name

4. Address ____________

5. Interviewed by | Code

RECORD OF CALLS

Date	Time	Comments
1.	a.m. p.m.	
2.	a.m. p.m.	
3.	a.m. p.m.	
4.	a.m. p.m.	

RECORD OF INTERVIEW

Interview time		Date completed	Comments
Began	Ended		
a.m. p.m.	a.m. p.m.		

NONINTERVIEW REASON

1 ☐ Temporarily absent

2 ☐ Unable to locate respondent – *Specify* ____________

3 ☐ Refused

4 ☐ Other – *Specify* ____________

TRANSCRIPTION FROM HOUSEHOLD RECORD CARD

Item 2 – Identification code ____________

Item 15 – Age ____________

Item 22 – Tenure
1 ☐ Owned or being bought
2 ☐ Rented
3 ☐ No cash rent

Item 13 – Marital status
1 ☐ Married spouse present
2 ☐ Married spouse absent
3 ☐ Widowed
4 ☐ Divorced
5 ☐ Separated
6 ☐ Never married

Item 16 – Race
1 ☐ White
2 ☐ Negro
3 ☐ Other

Items 23 – 25 – Land usage
1 ☐ A
2 ☐ B
3 ☐ C
4 ☐ D
5 ☐ E

IF RESPONDENT HAS MOVED, ENTER NEW ADDRESS

Number and street

City

County

State

ZIP code

I. CURRENT LABOR FORCE STATUS

1. What were you doing most of LAST WEEK –

{Working
{Keeping house
or something else

1 ☐ WK – Working – *SKIP to 2a*
2 ☐ J – With a job but not at work
3 ☐ LK – Looking for work
4 ☐ S – Going to school
5 ☐ KH – Keeping house
6 ☐ U – Unable to work – *SKIP to 5a*
7 ☐ OT – Other – *Specify*

____

2. Did you do any work at all LAST WEEK, not counting work around the house?

(Note: If farm or business operator in household, ask about unpaid work.)

1 ☐ Yes x ☐ No – *SKIP to 3*

2a. How many hours did you work LAST WEEK at all jobs? ______

2b. INTERVIEWER CHECK ITEM

1 ☐ 49 or more – *SKIP to 6*
2 ☐ 1 – 34 – *ASK 2c*
3 ☐ 35 – 48 – *ASK 2d*

2c. Do you USUALLY work 35 hours or more a week at this job?

1 ☐ Yes – What is the reason you worked less than 35 hours LAST WEEK?
2 ☐ No – What is the reason you USUALLY work less than 35 hours a week?

(Mark the appropriate reason)

01 ☐ Slack work
02 ☐ Material shortage
03 ☐ Plant or machine repair
04 ☐ New job started during week
05 ☐ Job terminated during week
06 ☐ Could find only part-time work
07 ☐ Holiday (legal or religious)
08 ☐ Labor dispute
09 ☐ Bad weather
10 ☐ Own illness
11 ☐ Illness of family member
12 ☐ On vacation
13 ☐ Too busy with housework
14 ☐ Too busy with school, personal business, etc.
15 ☐ Did not want full-time work
16 ☐ Full-time work week under 35 hours
17 ☐ Other reason – *Specify*

____

(If entry in 2c, SKIP to 6 and enter job worked at last week.)

2d. Did you lose any time or take any time off LAST WEEK for any reason such as illness, holiday, or slack work?

1 ☐ Yes – How many hours did you take off? ______
2 ☐ No

(Correct 2a if lost time not already deducted; if 2a reduced below 35, fill 2c, otherwise SKIP to 6.)

2e. Did you work any overtime or at more than one job LAST WEEK?

1 ☐ Yes – How many extra hours did you work? ______
2 ☐ No

(Correct 2a if extra hours not already included and SKIP to 6.)

(If "J" in 1, SKIP to 3a.)

3. Did you have a job (or business) from which you were temporarily absent or on layoff LAST WEEK?

1 ☐ Yes x ☐ No – *SKIP to 4*

3a. Why were you absent from work LAST WEEK?

1 ☐ Own illness
2 ☐ Illness of family member
3 ☐ On vacation
4 ☐ Too busy with housework, school, personal business
5 ☐ Bad weather
6 ☐ Labor dispute
7 ☐ New job to begin within 30 days – *ASK 4c2*
8 ☐ Temporary layoff (Under 30 days) } *ASK 4c3*
9 ☐ Indefinite layoff (30 days or more or no definite recall date) } *ASK 4c3*
0 ☐ Other – *Specify*

____

3b. Are you getting wages or salary for any of the time off LAST WEEK?

1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No
3 ☐ Self-employed

3c. Do you usually work 35 hours or more a week at this job?

1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No

(SKIP to 6 and enter job held last week.)

Notes

I. CURRENT LABOR FORCE STATUS – Continued

(If "LK" in 1, SKIP to 4a.)

4. Have you been looking for work during the past 4 weeks?

1 ☐ Yes x ☐ No – *SKIP to 5a*

4a. What have you been doing in the last 4 weeks to find work?

(Mark all methods used; do not read list.)

Checked with –

- 1 ☐ State employment agency
- 2 ☐ Private employment agency
- 3 ☐ Employer directly
- 4 ☐ Friends or relatives

5 ☐ Placed or answered ads

6 ☐ Nothing – *SKIP to 5a*

7 ☐ Other – *Specify – e.g., MDTA, union or professional register, etc.*

____

4b. Why did you start looking for work? Was it because you lost or quit a job at that time or was there some other reason?

1 ☐ Lost job

2 ☐ Quit job

3 ☐ Wanted temporary work

4 ☐ Other – *Specify* ____________________

4c. 1) How many weeks have you been looking for work?

2) How many weeks ago did you start looking for work?

3) How many weeks ago were you laid off?

Number of weeks ________________

4d. Have you been looking for full-time or part-time work?

1 ☐ Full-time work 2 ☐ Part-time work

4e. Is there any reason why you could not take a job LAST WEEK?

1 ☐ Yes →
- 2 ☐ Already has a job
- 3 ☐ Temporary illness
- 4 ☐ Going to school
- 5 ☐ Other – *Specify*

6 ☐ No

____

4f. In what year did you last work at a regular full- or part-time job lasting two consecutive weeks or more? *Record year last job ended on Reference Information sheet (Labor Force Group B)*

1 ☐ January 1966 or later

2 ☐ 1962 – 65 – *Specify month and year*

Month ______________ year ________

3 ☐ Before 1962 – Specify year ________

} *SKIP to 5b*

4 ☐ Never worked 2 weeks or more

5 ☐ Never worked at all

} *SKIP to Check Item C, Page 5*

5a. In what year did you last work at a regular full- or part-time job or business? *Record year last job ended on Reference Information Sheet (Labor Force Group C)*

1 ☐ January 1966 or later

2 ☐ 1962 – 65 – *Specify month and year*

Month ______________ Year ________

3 ☐ Before 1962 – *Specify year* ________

} *ASK 5b*

4 ☐ Never worked – *SKIP to Check Item C, page 5*

5b. On that job did you usually work 35 hours or more a week?

1 ☐ 35 hours or more 2 ☐ Less than 35 hours

5c. Why did you leave your last job?

- 01 ☐ To get married
- 02 ☐ Husband wanted her to quit
- 03 ☐ Husband transferred, moved
- 04 ☐ Own health
- 05 ☐ Pregnancy
- 06 ☐ Health of family members
- 07 ☐ Devote more time to family
- 08 ☐ Seasonal job completed
- 09 ☐ Slack work or business conditions
- 10 ☐ Temporary nonseasonal work completed
- 11 ☐ Unsatisfactory work arrangements (hour, pay, etc.)
- 12 ☐ Other – *Specify* ________________

GO to 6 and describe that job

6. DESCRIPTION OF JOB OR BUSINESS

6a. For whom did you work? *(Name of company, business, organization or other employer)*

____

6b. In what city and State is . . . located?

City ____________________

State ____________________

6c. What kind of business or industry is this? *(For example, TV and radio manufacturer, retail shoe store, restaurant, State Labor Department, farm)*

____

Census use only

6d. Were you –

1 ☐ P – An employee of PRIVATE company, business, or individual for wages, salary, or commission?

2 ☐ G – A GOVERNMENT employee (Federal, State, county, or local)?

3 ☐ O – Self-employed in OWN business, professional practice, or farm?

(If not a farm) – Is this business incorporated?

☐ Yes ☐ No

4 ☐ WP – Working WITHOUT PAY in family business or farm?

6e. What kind of work were you doing? *(For example, typist, elementary teacher, waitress, stock clerk)*

____

Census use only

I. CURRENT LABOR FORCE STATUS – Continued

6f. When did you start working at this job or business? *If 1966 or later, enter both month and year.*	**6f.** Year ________ Month ________
7. How did you find out about that job? *If "Other," specify here* ________	**7.** 1 ☐ State employment agency 2 ☐ Private employment agency 3 ☐ Checked directly with employer 4 ☐ Newspaper ads 5 ☐ Friends or relatives 6 ☐ Other
CHECK ITEM A	x ☐ Respondent has not worked since January 1966 – *SKIP to Check Item C, page 5* 1 ☐ All others – *ASK 8*
8a. How much time (does, did) it usually take you to get to work (one way)?	**8a.** ________
b. What means of transportation do you usually use to get to work? – *Check as many boxes as apply* *If "Other," specify here* ________	**b.** 1 ☐ Own auto – *ASK 8c* 2 ☐ Ride with someone else 3 ☐ Bus or streetcar 4 ☐ Subway or elevated 5 ☐ Railroad 6 ☐ Taxicab } *ASK 8d* 7 ☐ Walked only 8 ☐ Other } *SKIP to Check Item B*
c. 1. What is the total cost of any parking fees or tolls you have to pay (round trip)?	**c.** 1. 0 ☐ No cost or $ ________ per ________
2. How many miles do you go by car (round trip)?	2. Miles ________
☐ Only box 1 marked in 8b – *SKIP to Check Item B* ☐ Box 1 and any of boxes 2 – 6 marked in 8b – *ASK 8d*	
d. What is the total cost of the round trip by (means of transportation given in b)?	**d.** 0 ☐ No cost or $ ________ per ________
CHECK ITEM B	1 ☐ "P" or "G" in item 6d – *ASK 9* x ☐ "O" or "WP" in item 6d – *SKIP to Check Item C, page 5*
9a. How much do (did) you earn at (job listed in 6a)?	**9a.** $ ________ per ________
b. How many hours a week do (did) you usually work at this job?	**b.** Hours ________
c. Do (did) you receive extra pay when you work (worked) over a certain number of hours a week?	**c.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK 9d* 2 ☐ No – compensating time off only 3 ☐ No 4 ☐ Never work overtime } *SKIP to Check Item C, page 5*
d. After how many hours do (did) you receive extra pay?	**d.** 1 ☐ Hours ________ per day 2 ☐ Hours ________ per week
e. For all hours worked over (entry in 9d) are (were) you paid straight time, time and one-half, double time, or is there some other arrangement? *If "Other," specify here* ________	**e.** 1 ☐ Straight time 2 ☐ Time and one-half 3 ☐ Double time 4 ☐ Compensating time off 5 ☐ Other

II. ATTITUDE TOWARD WORK

CHECK ITEM C	Respondent is in Labor Force Group 1 ☐ A ("WK" in 1 or "Yes" in 2 or 3) – *ASK 10* 2 ☐ B ("LK" in 1 or "Yes" in 4) – *SKIP to 22* × ☐ C (All others) – *SKIP to 30*	*Record Labor Force Group on Reference Information Sheet*

LABOR FORCE GROUP A

10. How do you feel about the job you have now? Respondent's comments ______	10. Do you 1 ☐ Like it very much? 2 ☐ Like it fairly well? 3 ☐ Dislike it somewhat? 4 ☐ Dislike it very much?

11. What are the things you like best about your job? – *After respondent gives an answer*, *ASK* "Anything else?"

1. ______
2. ______
3. ______

12. What are the things about your job that you don't like so well? – *After respondent gives an answer, ASK* "Anything else?"

1. ______
2. ______
3. ______

13. What would you say is the more important thing about any job – good wages or liking the kind of work you are doing?	13. 1 ☐ Good wages 2 ☐ Liking the work

Respondent's comments ______

14a. If, by some chance you (and your husband) were to get enough money to live comfortably without working, do you think that you would work anyway?	14a. 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to c* 3 ☐ Undecided – *SKIP to d*

b. Why do you feel that you would work?

______

c. Why do you feel that you would not work?

______

d. On what would it depend?

______

15. Suppose someone IN THIS AREA offered you a job in the same line of work you're in now. How much would the new job have to pay for you to be willing to take it? – *If amount given per hour, record dollars and cents. Otherwise, round to the nearest dollar.* Respondent's comments ______	15. $ ______ per ______ 1 ☐ I wouldn't take it at any conceivable pay 2 ☐ I would take a steady job at same or less pay
16. If for some reason you were permanently to lose your present job tomorrow, what would you do? *If "Other" specify here* ______	16. 1 ☐ Take another job I know about – *ASK 17* 2 ☐ Look for work – *SKIP to 18* 3 ☐ Stay at home – *SKIP to 19* 4 ☐ Other – *SKIP to 20*

II. ATTITUDE TOWARD WORK – Continued

17a. For whom would you work?

____

b. What kind of work do you think you would be doing?

______________________________ – *SKIP to 20a*

18a. What kind of work would you look for?

____

b. Are there any particular employers to whom you would apply?

b. Number of employers listed __________
0 ☐ Companies of a particular type } *SKIP to 20a*
x ☐ None } *SKIP to 20a*

1. ______________________________
2. ______________________________
3. ______________________________

c. Why do you mention these particular employers?

______________________________ – *SKIP to 20a*

19. Is there any particular reason why you plan to stay at home?

19. 1 ☐ Yes – *Specify* __________
2 ☐ No

20a. How long do you think you will continue to work at your present job?

20a. 1 ☐ Less than 1 year } *ASK 20b*
2 ☐ 1 – 4 years } *ASK 20b*
3 ☐ 5 years or longer } *SKIP to 21*
4 ☐ As long as I can } *SKIP to 21*
5 ☐ Don't know } *SKIP to 21*

b. What do you plan to do immediately after you stop working at your present job?

If "Other," specify here __________

b. 1 ☐ Take another job I know about } *ASK 20 c – d*
2 ☐ Look for work } *ASK 20 c – d*
3 ☐ Stay home – *SKIP to 20e*
4 ☐ Go to school, get additional training } *SKIP to 21*
5 ☐ Other } *SKIP to 21*

c. What kind of work do you think you will (be doing) (look for)?

____

d. Do you think it will be part-time or full-time work?

d. 1 ☐ Part-time } *SKIP to 21*
2 ☐ Full-time } *SKIP to 21*

e. Is there any particular reason why you plan to stay at home?

e. 1 ☐ Yes – *Specify* __________
2 ☐ No

x ☐ Respondent has no children under age 18 in the household – *SKIP to 34*

21a. Is it necessary for you to make any regular arrangements for the care of your children while you are working?

21a. 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b and c*
2 ☐ No – *ASK d*

b. What arrangements have you made?

b. Child is cared for
1 ☐ In own home by relative
2 ☐ In own home by nonrelative
3 ☐ In relative's home
4 ☐ In nonrelative's home
5 ☐ At school or group care center (day care center, day nursery, nursery school, after-school center, settlement house, etc.)

c. What is the cost of these child care arrangements?

c. 0 ☐ No cost $ ______ per ______
SKIP to 34

d. Why is that? ______________________________ – *SKIP to 34*

II. ATTITUDE TOWARD WORK – Continued

LABOR FORCE GROUP B

22. What kind of work are you looking for?

______

23. How much would the job have to pay for you to be willing to take it?	23. $ ______ per ______
24. How many hours per week do you want to work?	24. Hours ______
25a. Are there any restrictions, such as hours or location of job that would be a factor in your taking a job?	25a. 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 26*

b. What are these restrictions?

______

______

0 ☐ Respondent has no children under age 18 in the household – *SKIP to 27*

26a. Will it be necessary for you to make any special arrangements for the care of your children, if you find a job?	26a. 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *ASK c*
b. What arrangements will you make?	b. Child will be cared for 1 ☐ In own home by relative 2 ☐ In own home by nonrelative 3 ☐ In relative's home 4 ☐ In nonrelative's home 5 ☐ At school or group care center (day care center, day nursery, nursery school, after-school center, Settlement house, etc.) 6 ☐ Don't know *SKIP to 27*

c. Why is that? ______

27. What would you say is the more important thing about any job – good wages or liking the kind of work you are doing? Respondent's comments ______	27. 1 ☐ Good wages 2 ☐ Liking the work
28a. If, by some chance, you (and your husband) were to get enough money to live comfortably without working, do you think you would work anyway?	28a. 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to c* 3 ☐ Undecided – *SKIP to d*

b. Why do you feel that you would work?

______

c. Why do you feel that you would not work?

______

d. On what would it depend?

______

Notes

II. ATTITUDE TOWARD WORK – Continued

29a. What do you expect to be doing five years from now – working, staying home, or something else? *If "Other," specify here* ______________	**29a.** 1 ☐ Working – *ASK 29 b – c* 2 ☐ Staying home – *SKIP to 29d* 3 ☐ Go to school, get additional training } *SKIP to 34* 4 ☐ Other } *SKIP to 34*
b. What kind of work do you think you will be doing? ______________	
c. Do you think it will be part-time or full-time?	**c.** 1 ☐ Part-time } *SKIP to 34* 2 ☐ Full-time } *SKIP to 34*
d. Is there any particular reason why you plan to stay at home?	**d.** 1 ☐ Yes – *Specify* ______________ } *SKIP to 34* 2 ☐ No } *SKIP to 34*

LABOR FORCE GROUP C

30a. If you were offered a job by some employer IN THIS AREA, do you think you would take it?	**30a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK 30 b – g* 2 ☐ It depends – *Specify "On what" and ask 30 b – g* ______________ x ☐ No – *SKIP to 32*
b. What kind of work would it have to be? ______________	
c. What would the wages or salary have to be? *If amount given per hour, record dollars and cents, otherwise, round to the nearest dollar.*	**c.** $ __________ per __________
d. Are there any restrictions, such as hours or location of job, that would be a factor in your taking a job?	**d.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK e* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to f*
e. What are these restrictions? ______________ ______________	
f. Why would you say you are not looking for such a job now? ______________	
g. Do you expect to look for work within the next year?	**g.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No

0 ☐ Respondent has no children under age 18 in the household – *SKIP to 33*

31. Would it be necessary for you to make any special arrangements for the care of your children, if you were to take a job?	**31.** 1 ☐ Yes } *SKIP to 33* 2 ☐ No – Why not? ______________ } *SKIP to 33* 3 ☐ Don't know } *SKIP to 33*

Notes

II. ATTITUDE TOWARD WORK – Continued

32a. Are there any circumstances under which you think you would want to take a job? Respondent's comments ____________	**32a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b – e* x ☐ No – *SKIP to 33*
b. What kind of work would it have to be? ____________	
c. What would the wage or salary have to be? *If amount given per hour, record dollars and cents. Otherwise round to nearest dollar.*	**c.** $ ________ per ________
d. Are there any restrictions, such as hours or location of job, that would be a factor in your taking a job?	**d.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK 32e* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 33*
e. What are these restrictions? ____________ ____________	
33a. What do you expect to be doing five years from now – working, staying home, or something else? *If "Other," specify here* ____________ ____________	**33a.** 1 ☐ Working – *ASK 33 b – c* 2 ☐ Staying home – *SKIP to 33d* 3 ☐ Go to school, get additional training } *SKIP to 34* 4 ☐ Don't know } *SKIP to 34* 5 ☐ Other } *SKIP to 34*
b. What kind of work do you think you will be doing? ____________	
c. Do you think it will be part-time or full-time work?	**c.** 1 ☐ Part-time } *SKIP to 34* 2 ☐ Full-time } *SKIP to 34*
d. Is there any particular reason why you plan to stay at home?	**d.** 1 ☐ Yes – *Specify* ____________ 2 ☐ No

III. WORK EXPERIENCE IN 1966

34a. Now I have some questions on your work experience during 1966. In how many different weeks did you work either full or part time in 1966 (not counting work around the house)? (Include paid vacations and paid sick leave.)	**34a.** Number of weeks ________ x ☐ None – *SKIP to 36a*
b. During the weeks that you worked in 1966, how many hours per week did you usually work?	**b.** Hours ________
CHECK ITEM D	1 ☐ 52 weeks in 34a – *ASK 35a* 2 ☐ 1 – 51 weeks in 34a – *SKIP to 35b*
35a. Did you lose any full weeks of work in 1966 because you were on layoff from a job or lost a job?	**35a.** 1 ☐ Yes – How many weeks? ________ *Adjust item 34a and SKIP to 35c* x ☐ No – *SKIP to Check Item E, page 10*
b. You say you worked *(entry in 34a)* weeks in 1966. In any of the remaining *(52 weeks minus entry in 34a)* ________ weeks were you looking for work or on layoff from a job?	**b.** 1 ☐ Yes – How many weeks? ________ – *ASK 35c* x ☐ No – *SKIP to Check Item E, page 10*
c. Were all of these weeks in one stretch?	**c.** 1 ☐ Yes, 1 } *SKIP to Check Item E, page 10* 2 ☐ No, 2 } *SKIP to Check Item E, page 10* 3 ☐ No, 3 or more } *SKIP to Check Item E, page 10*

III. WORK EXPERIENCE IN 1966 – Continued

For those who did not work in 1966 36a. Even though you did not work in 1966, did you spend any time trying to find work or on layoff from a job?	36a. 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to c and ask about 52 weeks*
b. How many different weeks were you looking for work or on layoff from a job?	b. Weeks ______________
c. Now let me see. During 1966 there were about *(52 weeks minus entries in items 34a and 36b)* __________ weeks that you were not working or looking for work. What would you say was the main reason that you were not looking for work?	c. 1 ☐ Ill or disabled and unable to work 2 ☐ Birth of child 3 ☐ Other family responsibility 4 ☐ Couldn't find work 5 ☐ Vacation 6 ☐ Did not want to work 7 ☐ Other – *Specify* } *SKIP to Check Item G* ______________________________

CHECK ITEM E	*Refer to items 34a and 35b* 1 ☐ All weeks accounted for – *SKIP to Check Item F* 2 ☐ Some weeks not accounted for – *ASK 37*

37. Now let me see. During 1966 there were about *(52 weeks minus entries in items 34a and 35b)* __________ weeks that you were not working or looking for work. What would you say was the main reason that you were not looking for work?	37. 1 ☐ Ill or disabled and unable to work 2 ☐ Birth of child 3 ☐ Other family responsibility 4 ☐ Couldn't find work 5 ☐ Vacation 6 ☐ Did not want to work 7 ☐ Other – *Specify* ______________________________

CHECK ITEM F	1 ☐ "O" in 6d – *ASK 38a* 2 ☐ "P," "G" or "WP" in 6d – *SKIP to 38b*

38a. I see that you are self-employed. Did you work for anyone else for wages or salary in 1966?	38a. 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to Check Item G*
b. In 1966, for how many employers did you work?	b. Number of employers ______________

IV. MARITAL AND FAMILY HISTORY

CHECK ITEM G	*Refer to Household Record Card* 1 ☐ Respondent is "never married" and has children of her own in the household – *SKIP to 44* x ☐ Respondent is "never married" and has no children of her own in the household – *SKIP to Check Item H, page 12* } *Record on Reference Information Sheet* 2 ☐ All others – *ASK 39*

39. Have you been married more than once?	39. 1 ☐ Once – *ASK 40* 2 ☐ More than once – *Specify number* ______________ – *SKIP to 41*
40a. When were you married?	40a. Month ______________ 19 __________
2 ☐ Respondent currently married – *SKIP to 42* 3 ☐ All others – *ASK 40 b* } *Record marital status and year of marriage on Reference Information Sheet*	
b. When were you (widowed, divorced, separated)?	b. Month ______________ 19 __________ – *SKIP to 42*

IV. MARITAL AND FAMILY HISTORY – Continued

41a. What was the date of your first marriage?	**41a.** Month ______________ 19 ________
b. How was it terminated?	**b.** 1 ☐ Widowed 2 ☐ Divorced
c. When was it terminated?	**c.** Month ______________ 19 ________
2 ☐ Respondent currently married – *ASK 41d* 3 ☐ All others – *SKIP to 41e*	*Record marital status and year of respondent's first marriage on Reference Information Sheet*
d. When were you married most recently?	**d.** Month ______________ 19 ________ *SKIP to 42*
e. What are the dates of your most recent marriage?	**e.** From: Month ______________ 19 ________ To: Month ______________ 19 ________
42a. Have you ever adopted any children or did your husband have children who came to live with you when you married him?	**42a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 44*
b. How many children?	**b.** ________
43a. In what year did the first of these children come to live with you?	**43a.** 19 ________
b. How old was the child at that time?	**b.** ________
c. Of all these children, how many still live with you?	**c.** ________
44a. Have you ever given birth to any children who are not living with you now?	**44a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 46*
b. How many children?	**b.** ________
45. In what month and year was the first child born?	**45.** Month ______________ 19 ________

0 ☐ Respondent has no children – *SKIP to Check Item H, page 12*

46. If I am correct, your first child was born (you first assumed responsibility for a child) in 19______. Is that right? *Enter earliest year of birth or "acquisition" of a child from Record Card and items 43 and 45. Record year of first child's birth on Reference Information Sheet.*	**46.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – *Find out correct year and adjust accordingly*

Was another person present while completing Section IV?

1 ☐ Yes   2 ☐ No – *Go to Check Item H, page 12*

Would you say this person influenced the respondent's answers?

1 ☐ Yes   2 ☐ No

Notes

V WORK EXPERIENCE BEFORE 1966

CHECK ITEM H

Refer to Reference Information Sheet

1 ☐ Respondent has never worked – *SKIP to 66*

Respondent has worked and:

2 ☐ (Is, has been) married – *ASK 47*

3 ☐ Has never been married and has no children of her own in the household – *SKIP to 57*

4 ☐ Has never been married and has children of her own in the household – *SKIP to 60*

EVER MARRIED RESPONDENT

47a. I'd like to ask you about the longest job you had between the time you stopped going to school full time and your (first) marriage. For whom did you work?	**47a.** x ☐ Did not work in that period 0 ☐ Married while still in school } *SKIP to 48a and then Check Item I, page 13* 1 ☐ Same as current (last) job – *ASK b and SKIP to k* 2 ☐ Other – *ASK b – l*
b. What kind of work were you doing on that job? (longest assignment) ______	
c. What kind of business or industry was that? ______	
d. Were you – 1. An employee of PRIVATE company, business, or individual for wages, salary or commission? 2. A GOVERNMENT employee (Federal, state, county, or local)? 3. Self-employed in OWN business, professional practice, or farm? 4. Working WITHOUT PAY in family business or farm?	**d.** 1 ☐ P – Private 2 ☐ G – Government 3 ☐ O – Self-employed 4 ☐ WP – Without pay
e. Where was that job located?	**e.** City or county ______ State ______
f. Did you usually work 35 hours or more a week?	**f.** 1 ☐ 35 hours or more 2 ☐ Less than 35 hours
g. In what year did you START working at that job?	**g.** Year ______
h. In what year did you STOP working at that job?	**h.** Year ______
i. Then you worked there for *("h" minus "g")* ______ years, is that correct?	**i.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – *Correct dates in "g" and "h" as necessary*
j. How did you happen to leave that job? ______	
k. Was this the first regular full-time job you had after you stopped going to school full-time?	**k.** 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to 48* 2 ☐ No – *ASK l*
l. In what year did you take your first regular full-time job (exclude summer vacation jobs)?	**l.** Year ______
48a. In what year did you stop going to school full-time?	**48a.** Year ______
9 ☐ No years between school and marriage – *SKIP to Check Item I, page 13*	
b. Of the ______ years between the time you left school and your (first) marriage in how many of these years would you say you worked at least six months?	**b.** Number ______

V. WORK EXPERIENCE BEFORE 1966 – Continued

CHECK ITEM I	*Refer to Reference Information Sheet* 1 ☐ Respondent now has or has had children – *GO to Check Item J* x ☐ Respondent has no children – *SKIP to 55*
CHECK ITEM J	*Refer to Reference Information Sheet* Respondent is in Labor Force Group B or C and the: 1 ☐ Year her last job ended was between the year of her (first) marriage and the year of her first child's birth (or the year she first assumed responsibility for a child) – *SKIP to 50* x ☐ Year her last job ended is before or is the same as the year of her (first) marriage – *SKIP to Check Item K, page 14* 2 ☐ All others – *ASK 49*

49. Between the time of your (first) marriage and the birth of your first child, (you first assumed responsibility for a child) did you ever have a job or business?	**49.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK 50* x ☐ No – *SKIP to Check Item K, page 14*
50a. I'd like to know about the longest job you held between the time of your (first) marriage and the birth of your first child (you first assumed responsibility for a child). For whom did you work?	**50a.** 1 ☐ Same as current (last) job } *ASK b and then SKIP to 51* 2 ☐ Same as job between school and marriage } *ASK b and then SKIP to 51* 3 ☐ Other – *ASK b – j*

b. What kind of work were you doing on that job? (longest assignment)

____

c. What kind of business or industry was that?

____

d. Were you – 1. An employee of PRIVATE company, business, or individual for wages, salary or commission? 2. A GOVERNMENT employee (Federal, State, county or local)? 3. Self-employed in OWN business, professional practice, or farm? 4. Working WITHOUT PAY in family business or farm?	**d.** 1 ☐ P – Private 2 ☐ G – Government 3 ☐ O – Self-employed 4 ☐ WP – Without pay
e. Where was that job located?	**e.** City or county ____________ State ____________
f. Did you usually work 35 hours or more a week?	**f.** 1 ☐ 35 hours or more 2 ☐ Less than 35 hours
g. In what year did you START working at that job?	**g.** Year ________
h. In what year did you STOP working at that job?	**h.** Year ________
i. Then you worked there for *("h" minus "g")* ______ years, is that correct?	**i.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – *Correct dates in "g" and "h" as necessary*

j. How did you happen to leave that job?

____

51. Of the ______ years between your (first) marriage and the birth of your first child (the time you assumed responsibility for a child), in how many of these years would you say you worked at least six months?	**51.** Number ________

V. WORK EXPERIENCE BEFORE 1966 – Continued

CHECK ITEM K

Refer to Reference Information Sheet

Respondent is in Labor Force Group B or C and the:

x ☐ Year her last job ended was before her first child was born (or she first assumed responsibility for a child) – *SKIP to 65*

1 ☐ Year her last job ended was after her first child was born (or she first assumed responsibility for a child) – *ASK 52*

2 ☐ Respondent is in Labor Force Group A – *ASK 52*

52. In what month and year did you first work after your first child was born (you first assumed responsibility for a child)?	52. Month ____________ Year ______
53a. I would like to know about the longest job you have held since 19____, the birth of your first child. For whom did you work?	53a. 1 ☐ Same as current (last job) 2 ☐ Same as job between school and marriage 3 ☐ Same as job between marriage and child (1–3: *ASK b, then SKIP to 54*) 4 ☐ Other – *ASK b – j*

b. What kind of work were you doing on that job? (longest assignment)

____

c. What kind of business or industry was that?

____

d. Were you – 1. An employee of PRIVATE company, business or individual for wages, salary or commission? 2. A GOVERNMENT employee (Federal, State, county, or local)? 3. Self-employed in OWN business, professional practice, or farm? 4. Working WITHOUT PAY in family business or farm?	d. 1 ☐ P – Private 2 ☐ G – Government 3 ☐ O – Self-employed 4 ☐ WP – Without pay
e. Where was that job located?	e. City or county ____________ State ____________
f. Did you usually work 35 hours or more a week?	f. 1 ☐ 35 hours or more 2 ☐ Less than 35 hours
g. In what year did you START working at that job?	g. Year ________
h. In what year did you STOP working at that job?	h. Year ________
i. Then you worked there for *("h" minus "g")* ______ years, is that correct?	i. 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – *Correct dates in "g" and "h" as necessary*

j. How did you happen to leave that job?

____

54. Of the ______ years since your first child was born, in how many of these years would you say you worked at least six months?	54. Number ____________ – *SKIP to 65*

Notes

V WORK EXPERIENCE BEFORE 1966 – Continued

RESPONDENT HAS NO CHILDREN

55a. I'd like to know about the longest job you have held since your (first) marriage. For whom did you work?	55a. x ☐ Has not worked – *SKIP to 65* 1 ☐ Same as current (last) job } *ASK b and SKIP to 56* 2 ☐ Same as job between school and marriage } *ASK b and SKIP to 56* 3 ☐ Other – *ASK b – j*
b. What kind of work were you doing on that job? (longest assignment) ____________________	
c. What kind of business or industry was that? ____________________	
d. Were you – 1. An employee of PRIVATE company, business or individual for wages, salary or commission? 2. A GOVERNMENT employee (Federal, State, county, or local)? 3. Self-employed in OWN business, professional practice, or farm? 4. Working WITHOUT PAY in family business or farm?	d. 1 ☐ P – Private 2 ☐ G – Government 3 ☐ O – Self-employed 4 ☐ WP – Without pay
e. Where was that job located?	e. City or county ____________ State ____________
f. Did you usually work 35 hours or more a week?	f. 1 ☐ 35 hours or more 2 ☐ Less than 35 hours
g. In what year did you START working at that job?	g. Year ________
h. In what year did you STOP working at that job?	h. Year ________
i. Then you worked there for *("h" minus "g")* _____ years, is that correct?	i. 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – *Correct dates in "g" and "h" as necessary*
j. How did you happen to leave that job? ____________________	
56. Of the _____ years since your (first) marriage, in how many of these years would you say you worked at least six months?	56. Number __________ – *SKIP to 65*

Notes

V. WORK EXPERIENCE BEFORE 1966 – Continued

NEVER MARRIED, HAS NO CHILDREN

57a. I'd like to ask you about the first job at which you worked at least six months, after you stopped going to school full-time. For whom did you work?	**57a.** 1 ☐ Same as current (last) job – *ASK b and SKIP to k* 2 ☐ Other – *ASK b – l*
b. What kind of work were you doing on that job? (longest assignment) ____________________	
c. What kind of business or industry was that? ____________________	
d. Were you – 1. An employee of PRIVATE company, business, or individual for wages, salary or commission? 2. A GOVERNMENT employee (Federal, State, county, or local)? 3. Self-employed in OWN business, professional practice, or farm? 4. Working WITHOUT PAY in family business or farm?	**d.** 1 ☐ P – Private 2 ☐ G – Government 3 ☐ O – Self-employed 4 ☐ WP – Without pay
e. Where was that job located?	**e.** City or county __________ State __________
f. Did you usually work 35 hours or more a week?	**f.** 1 ☐ 35 hours or more 2 ☐ Less than 35 hours
g. In what year did you START working at that job?	**g.** Year ______
h. In what year did you STOP working at that job?	**h.** Year ______
i. Then you worked there for *("h" minus "g")* _____ years, is that correct?	**i.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – *Correct dates in "g" and "h" as necessary*
j. How did you happen to leave that job? ____________________	
k. Was this the first regular full-time job you had after you stopped going to school full-time?	**k.** 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to 58* 2 ☐ No – *ASK l*
l. In what year did you take your first regular full-time job (exclude summer vacation jobs)?	**l.** Year ______

Notes

V. WORK EXPERIENCE BEFORE 1966 – Continued

58a. Now, of all the jobs you have ever had, I'd like to know about the one at which you worked the longest. For whom did you work then?	**58a.** 1 ☐ Same as current (last) job 2 ☐ Same as first job } *ASK b and SKIP to 59* 3 ☐ Other – *ASK b – j*
b. What kind of work were you doing on that job? (longest assignment) ____________________	
c. What kind of business or industry was that? ____________________	
d. Were you – 1. An employee of PRIVATE company, business, or individual for wages, salary or commission? 2. A GOVERNMENT employee (Federal, State, county, or local)? 3. Self-employed in OWN business, professional practice, or farm? 4. Working WITHOUT PAY in family business or farm?	**d.** 1 ☐ P – Private 2 ☐ G – Government 3 ☐ O – Self-employed 4 ☐ WP – Without pay
e. Where was that job located?	**e.** City or county ________________ State ________________
f. Did you usually work 35 hours or more a week?	**f.** 1 ☐ 35 hours or more 2 ☐ Less than 35 hours
g. In what year did you START working at that job?	**g.** Year __________
h. In what year did you STOP working at that job?	**h.** Year __________
i. Then you worked there for *("h" minus "g")* ______ years, is that correct?	**i.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – *Correct dates in "g" and "h" as necessary*
j. How did you happen to leave that job? ____________________	
59a. In what year did you stop going to school full-time?	**59a.** Year __________
b. Of the _____ years since you left school, in how many of these years would you say you worked at least six months?	**b.** Number __________ – *SKIP to 65*

Notes

V. WORK EXPERIENCE BEFORE 1966 – Continued

NEVER MARRIED, HAS CHILDREN

60a. I'd like to ask you about the longest job you had between the time you stopped going to school full-time and the birth of your first child. For whom did you work?	**60a.** x ☐ Did not work in this period – *SKIP to 61a and then Check Item L, page 19* 1 ☐ Same as current (last) job – *ASK b and SKIP to k* 2 ☐ Other – *ASK b – l*
b. What kind of work were you doing on that job? (longest assignment)	
c. What kind of business or industry was that?	
d. Were you – 1. An employee of PRIVATE company, business, or individual for wages, salary or commission? 2. A GOVERNMENT employee (Federal, State, county, or local)? 3. Self-employed in OWN business professional practice, or farm? 4. Working WITHOUT PAY in family business or farm?	**d.** 1 ☐ P – Private 2 ☐ G – Government 3 ☐ O – Self-employed 4 ☐ WP – Without pay
e. Where was that job located?	**e.** City or county ____________ State ____________
f. Did you usually work 35 hours or more a week?	**f.** 1 ☐ 35 hours or more 2 ☐ Less than 35 hours
g. In what year did you START working at that job?	**g.** Year ________
h. In what year did you STOP working at that job?	**h.** Year ________
i. Then you worked there for *("h" minus "g")* ______ years, is that correct?	**i.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – *Correct dates in "g" and "h" as necessary*
j. How did you happen to leave that job?	
k. Was this the first regular full-time job you had after you stopped going to school full-time?	**k.** 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to 61* 2 ☐ No – *ASK l*
l. In what year did you take your first regular full-time job (exclude summer vacation jobs)?	**l.** Year ________
61a. In what year did you stop going to school full-time?	**61a.** Year ________
b. Of the ______ years between the time you left school and the birth of your first child, in how many of these years would you say you worked at least six months?	**b.** Number ________

V. WORK EXPERIENCE BEFORE 1966 – Continued

CHECK ITEM L	*Refer to Reference Information Sheet* Respondent is in Labor Force Group B or C and the x ☐ Year her last job ended was before her first child was born – *SKIP to 65* 1 ☐ Year her last job ended was after her first child was born – *ASK 62* 2 ☐ Respondent is in Labor Force Group A – *ASK 62*

62. In what month and year did you first work after your first child was born?	62. Month ______________ year ________
63a. I'd like to know about the longest job you have held since 19_____, the birth of your first child. For whom did you work?	63a. 1 ☐ Same as current (last) job 2 ☐ Same as job between school and child } *ASK b and SKIP to 64* 3 ☐ Other – *ASK b – j*

b. What kind of work were you doing on that job? (longest assignment)

____

c. What kind of business or industry was that?

____

d. Were you – 1. An employee of PRIVATE company, business, or individual for wages, salary or commission? 2. A GOVERNMENT employee (Federal, State, county or local)? 3. Self-employed in OWN business, professional practice, or farm? 4. Working WITHOUT PAY in family business or farm?	d. 1 ☐ P – Private 2 ☐ G – Government 3 ☐ O – Self-employed 4 ☐ WP – Without pay
e. Where was that job located?	e. City or county ______________ State ______________
f. Did you usually work 35 hours or more a week?	f. 1 ☐ 35 hours or more 2 ☐ Less than 35 hours
g. In what year did you START working at that job?	g. Year ________
h. In what year did you STOP working at that job?	h. Year ________
i. Then you worked there for *("h" minus "g")* ______ years, is that correct?	i. 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – *Correct dates in "g" and "h" as necessary*

j. How did you happen to leave that job?

____

64. Of the _____ years since you had your first child, in how many of these years would you say you worked at least six months?	64. Number __________

65. Aside from any work that you have actually done, what other kinds of work can you do? – *After the respondent gives an answer, ask* "Anything else?"

(1) ______________________________

(2) ______________________________

(3) ______________________________

VI. ATTITUDE TOWARD WOMEN'S ROLE

66. Now I'd like your opinion about women working. People have different ideas about whether married women should work. Here are three statements about a married woman with children between the ages of 6 and 12. *(HAND CARD TO RESPONDENT)* In each case, how do you feel about such a woman taking a full-time job outside the home. Is it definitely all right, probably all right, probably not all right, or definitely not all right?

Statements	Definitely all right	Probably all right	Probably not all right	Definitely not all right	No opinion, undecided
a. If it is absolutely necessary to make ends meet	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
b. If she wants to work and her husband agrees	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
c. If she wants to work, even if her husband does not particularly like the idea	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐

CHECK ITEM M

Refer to Reference Information Sheet

x ☐ Respondent is not currently married – *SKIP to Check Item N, page 21*

Respondent is currently married and
1 ☐ Is in Labor Force Group A or B – *ASK 67*
2 ☐ Is in Labor Force Group C – *SKIP to 68*

67. How does your husband feel about your working – does he like it very much, like it somewhat, not care either way, dislike it somewhat or dislike it very much?	67. 1 ☐ Like it very much 2 ☐ Like it somewhat 3 ☐ Not care either way 4 ☐ Dislike it somewhat 5 ☐ Dislike it very much *SKIP to 69*
68. How do you think your husband would feel about your working now – would he like it very much, like it somewhat, not care either way, dislike it somewhat or dislike it very much?	68. 1 ☐ Like it very much 2 ☐ Like it somewhat 3 ☐ Not care either way 4 ☐ Dislike it somewhat 5 ☐ Dislike it very much
69a. Now I'd like your opinion about some homemaking activities. How do you feel about keeping house in your own home? Respondent's comments ______	69a. Do you – 1 ☐ Like it very much? 2 ☐ Like it somewhat? 3 ☐ Dislike it somewhat? 4 ☐ Dislike it very much? 5 ☐ Undecided
b. How do you feel about taking care of children?	b. Do you – 1 ☐ Like it very much? 2 ☐ Like it somewhat? 3 ☐ Dislike it somewhat? 4 ☐ Dislike it very much? 5 ☐ Undecided
70. How do you spend most of the time when you are not doing housework or working for pay? – *After the respondent gives an answer, ask* "Anything else?" (1) ______ (2) ______ (3) ______	70. 1 ☐ Family or housekeeping related activities 2 ☐ Other activities at home 3 ☐ Entertainment, sports, social activities away from home 4 ☐ Clubs, education, church, etc.

Was another person present while completing Section VI?

1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – *Go to Check Item N*

Would you say this person influenced the respondent's answers?

1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No

VII. HEALTH

CHECK ITEM N	1 ☐ Respondent is in Labor Force Group A or B – *SKIP to 71b* 2 ☐ Respondent is in Labor Force Group C – *ASK 71a*

71. Does your health or physical condition –	71.	
a. Keep you from working at a job for pay?	a. 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to 72*	2 ☐ No – *ASK b*
b. Limit the kind of work you can do?	b. 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to 72*	2 ☐ No – *ASK c*
c. Limit the amount of work you can do?	c. 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to 72*	2 ☐ No – *ASK d*
d. Limit the amount of housework you can do?	d. 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK 72*	2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 73*

72a. *If "Yes" in any of 71a – d* – What physical or health problems do you have?

____

b. In what way are your activities limited?

____

c. How long have you been limited in this way?	c. Months ____________	Years ____________
73. Would you rate your health, compared with other women of about your age, as excellent, good, fair, or poor?	73. 1 ☐ Excellent 2 ☐ Good	3 ☐ Fair 4 ☐ Poor

x ☐ Respondent not married – *SKIP to 76*

74. Does your husband's health or physical condition –	74.	
a. Keep him from working?	a. 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to 75*	2 ☐ No – *ASK b*
b. Limit the kind of work he can do?	b. 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to 75*	2 ☐ No – *ASK c*
c. Limit the amount of work he can do?	c. 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK 75*	2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 76*

75a. *If "Yes" in any of 74a – c* – What physical or health problems does he have?

____

b. In what way are his activities limited?

____

c. How long has he been limited this way?	c. Months ____________	Years ____________

x ☐ No other family members living here – *SKIP to 77*

76a. Does any other member of your family living here have a physical condition or health problem which limits his work or other activities in any way?	76a. 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b – e* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 77*

b. Which family member is this? – *List line number as shown on Record Card.*

____

c. What physical or health problems does he have?

____

d. In what way are his activities limited?

____

____

e. Have his health problems influenced in any way, your decision to work or not work outside the home?	e. 1 ☐ Yes – In what way? ______________________________ ______________________________ 2 ☐ No – *Go to 77*

VIII. EDUCATION AND TRAINING

77a. Now, I'd like to ask some questions about your education and specialized training. What is the highest grade (or year) of regular school you have ever attended?	**77a.** 1 Elementary 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ 7 ☐ 8 ☐ 2 High 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 3 College 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6+ ☐
b. Did you finish this grade (year)? ☐ Three or more years of college – *ASK 77c* ☐ Less than three years of college – *SKIP to 78*	**b.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No
c. What was your field of study in college?	**c.** ____________________

x ☐ Never attended high school – *SKIP to 79*

1 ☐ Attended three or four years of high school – *ASK 78a*

2 ☐ All other – *SKIP to 78c*

78a. Did you take a vocational or commercial curriculum in high school?	**78a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to c*
b. What did you specialize in?	**b.** ____________________
c. In high school, did you take any courses in typing or shorthand?	**c.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK d – e* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 79*
d. What courses did you take?	**d.** 1 ☐ Typing 3 ☐ Both 2 ☐ Shorthand
e. How many years did you take (typing, shorthand)?	**e.** Typing __________ Shorthand __________
79a. Aside from regular school, did you ever take a full-time program lasting two weeks or more at a company training school?	**79a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* x ☐ No – *SKIP to 80*

b. What type of training did you take?

____

c. How long did this training last?	**c.** Months __________
d. How many hours per week did you spend on this program?	**d.** 1 ☐ 1 – 4 4 ☐ 15 – 19 2 ☐ 5 – 9 5 ☐ 20 or more 3 ☐ 10 – 14
e. Did you finish or complete this program?	**e.** 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to g* 2 ☐ No – *ASK f* 3 ☐ Still going on – *SKIP to 80*

f. Why didn't you finish or complete this program?

____

g. Do you use this training on your present (last) job?	**g.** 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to 80* 2 ☐ No – *ASK h*
h. Have you ever used this training on a job?	**h.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No

VIII. EDUCATION AND TRAINING – Continued

80a. Aside from regular school, did you ever take any technical, commercial, vocational, or skill training (not counting on-the-job training given informally)?	**80a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* x ☐ No – *SKIP to 81*
b. What type of training did you take?	
c. How long did this training last?	**c.** Months ______
d. How many hours per week did you spend on this training?	**d.** 1 ☐ 1 – 4 2 ☐ 5 – 9 3 ☐ 10 – 14 4 ☐ 15 – 19 5 ☐ 20 or more
e. Did you finish or complete this program?	**e.** 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to g* 2 ☐ No – *ASK f* 3 ☐ Still going on – *SKIP to 81*
f. Why didn't you complete this program?	
g. Do you use this training on your present (last) job?	**g.** 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to 81* 2 ☐ No – *ASK h* 3 ☐ Never worked – *SKIP to 81*
h. Have you ever used this training on a job?	**h.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No
81a. Since you stopped going to school full time, have you taken any additional courses, such as English, math, science, or art?	**81a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* x ☐ No – *SKIP to 82*
b. Did you take this course(s) in order to obtain a certificate, diploma or degree?	**b.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK c–d* 2 ☐ No – *ASK e–j*
c. What kind of certificate, diploma or degree is this?	
d. Did you finish or complete this course?	**d.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No 3 ☐ Still going on } *SKIP to 82*
e. What kind of course(s) did you take? – *If more than one course, obtain information for most important course.*	
f. How long did this course last?	**f.** Months ______
g. How many hours per week did you spend on this course?	**g.** 1 ☐ 1 – 4 2 ☐ 5 – 9 3 ☐ 10 – 14 4 ☐ 15 – 19 5 ☐ 20 or more
h. Did you finish or complete this course?	**h.** 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to j* 2 ☐ No – *ASK i* 3 ☐ Still going on – *SKIP to 82*
i. Why didn't you complete this course?	
j. Do you use this education on your present (last) job?	**j.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No 3 ☐ Never worked

VIII. EDUCATION AND TRAINING – Continued

82a. Are you planning to enroll in any type of educational or training courses in the future?	**82a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b – c* x ☐ No – *SKIP to 83*
b. What kind of course(s) are you interested in? *Specify particular type of course below.* ____________________ ____________________ ____________________	**b.** 1 ☐ General high school courses 2 ☐ Business or commercial school courses 3 ☐ General college courses 4 ☐ Teacher certification program 5 ☐ Graduate education 6 ☐ Refresher or brush-up courses 7 ☐ Other
c. What is your major reason for wanting to take more courses? ____________________	
83a. Have you ever obtained a certificate required for practicing any profession or trade such as teacher, registered nurse, practical nurse, or beautician?	**83a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 84*
b. What type of certificate was it? ____________________	
c. Is this certificate currently in effect?	**c.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No

Notes

IX. ASSETS AND INCOME

84. Is this house (apartment) owned or being bought by you (or your husband) or is it rented? *If "Other," specify here* ____________	**84.** 1 ☐ Owned or being bought 2 ☐ Rented 3 ☐ No cash rent 4 ☐ Other } *SKIP to 87*
85. In what year did you (or your husband) buy this property?	**85.** Year ________
86a. About how much do you think this property would sell for on today's market?	**86a.** $ ________ 0 ☐ None
b. How much do you (or your husband) owe on this property for mortgages, back taxes, loans, etc.? (Mortgages include deeds of trust, land contracts for deed, etc.)	**b.** $ ________ 0 ☐ None
87a. Do you (or your husband) rent, own, or have an investment in a farm?	**87a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 88*
b. What is the total market value of your farm operation? (Include value of land, building, house, if you own them, and the equipment, live stock, stored crops, and other assets. Do not include crops held under Commodity Credit Loans.)	**b.** $ ________
c. Does that include the value of this house?	**c.** 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No
d. How much do you owe on mortgages or other debts in connection with the farm itself, the equipment, livestock, or anything else? (Do not count Commodity Credit Loans.)	**d.** $ ________ 0 ☐ None
88a. Do you (or your husband) own or have an investment in a business or professional practice?	**88a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 89*
b. What is the total market value of all assets in the business, including tools and equipment? In other words, how much do you think this business would sell for on today's market? *(Obtain value of respondent's and husband's share only.)*	**b.** $ ________ 0 ☐ None
c. What is the total amount of debts or liabilities owed by the business? *(Include all liabilities as carried on the books. Respondent's and husband's share only.)*	**c.** $ ________ 0 ☐ None
89a. Do you (or your husband) own any other real estate – not counting the property on which you are living?	**89a.** 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 90*
b. About how much do you think this property would sell for on today's market?	**b.** $ ________ 0 ☐ None
c. How much is the unpaid amount of any mortgages on this property?	**c.** $ ________ 0 ☐ None
d. How much other debt do you have on this property, such as back taxes or assessments, unpaid amounts of home improvement loans, home repair bills, etc.?	**d.** $ ________ 0 ☐ None
90. Do you (or other members of your family living here) have any money in savings or checking accounts, savings and loan companies, or credit unions?	**90.** 1 ☐ Yes – How much? $ ________ 2 ☐ No

IX. ASSETS AND INCOME – Continued

91. Do you (or any other members of your family living here) have any of the following:	91.
a. U.S. Savings Bonds?	a. 1 ☐ Yes – What is their face value? $ ______ 2 ☐ No
b. Stocks, bonds, or shares in mutual funds?	b. 1 ☐ Yes – What is their market value? $ ______ 2 ☐ No
c. Does anyone owe you (or any other family member living here) any money?	c. 1 ☐ Yes – How much? $ ______ 2 ☐ No
92a. Do you (or your husband) own an automobile?	92a. 1 ☐ Yes – How many? ______ *ASK b – d* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 93*
b. What is the make and year? –*If more than one, ask about newest.*	b. Make ______ Year ______
c. When was it purchased?	c. Year ______
d. Do you (or your husband) owe any money on the automobile?	d. 1 ☐ Yes – How much? $ ______ 2 ☐ No
93. Aside from any debts you have already mentioned, do you (and your husband) now owe any money to stores, doctors, hospitals, banks, or anyone else, excluding 30–day charge accounts?	93. 1 ☐ Yes – How much? $ ______ 2 ☐ No
94. Now I'd like to ask a few questions on your income in 1966	94.
a. In 1966, how much did you receive from wages, salary, commissions, or tips from all jobs, before deductions for taxes or anything else? ☐ Respondent not married – *SKIP to 94c*	a. $ ______ 0 ☐ None
b. In 1966, how much did your husband receive from wages, salary, commissions, or tips from all jobs, before deductions for taxes or anything else? ☐ No other family members 14 years or older – *SKIP to 95a*	b. $ ______ 0 ☐ None
c. In 1966, how much did all other family members living here receive from wages, salary, commissions, or tips from all jobs, before deductions for taxes or anything else?	c. $ ______ 0 ☐ None
95a. In 1966, did you receive any income from working on your own or in your own business, professional practice, or partnership? Gross income ______ less expense ______ = Net ☐ No other family members 14 years or older – *SKIP to 96*	95a. 1 ☐ Yes – How much? $ ______ 2 ☐ No
b. In 1966, did any other family members living here receive any income from working on their own or in their own business, professional practice, or partnership? Gross income ______ less expense ______ = Net	b. 1 ☐ Yes – How much? $ ______ 2 ☐ No

IX. ASSETS AND INCOME – Continued

96. In 1966, did your family receive any income from operating a farm? Gross income ______ less expense ______ = Net	96. 1 ☐ Yes – How much? $ ______ 2 ☐ No

CHECK ITEM O	Make the following checks 1 ☐ Respondent worked in 1966 *(Number of weeks entered in 34a). An amount should be entered in 94a, 95a or 96.* 2 ☐ Respondent did not work in 1966 *("None" box marked in 34a). The "None" box should be marked in 94a and "No" marked in 95a and 96.* *If the questionnaire fails either of the above checks, review the matter with the respondent. If it still fails, explain the situation.*

97. In addition during 1966, did anyone in this family living here receive any rental income from roomers and boarders, an apartment in this house or another building, or other real estate? Gross income ______ less expense ______ = Net	97. 1 ☐ Yes – How much? $ ______ 2 ☐ No
98. In 1966, did anyone in this family living here receive interest or dividends, on savings, stocks, bonds, or income from estates or trusts?	98. 1 ☐ Yes – How much? $ ______ 2 ☐ No
99a. In 1966, did you receive any unemployment compensation?	99a. 1 ☐ Yes – How many weeks? ______ How much did you receive altogether? $ ______ 2 ☐ No
☐ Respondent not married – *SKIP to 99c*	
b. In 1966, did your husband receive any unemployment compensation?	b. 1 ☐ Yes – How many weeks? ______ How much did he receive altogether? $ ______ 2 ☐ No
☐ No other family members 14 years or older – *SKIP to 100*	
c. In 1966, did any other family members living here receive any unemployment compensation?	c. 1 ☐ Yes – How much? $ ______ 2 ☐ No

100. In 1966, did anyone in this family living here receive income as a result of disability or illness such as *(read list):*
If "Yes" to any items in list, enter amount, and indicate whether received by respondent or other family member.

	Yes	No	100. Amount	Mark one column for each amount entered: Respondent	Mark one column for each amount entered: Other family member
1. Veteran's compensation or pension?	1 ☐	2 ☐	$		
2. Workmen's compensation?	1 ☐	2 ☐	$		
3. Aid to the Permanently and Totally Disabled or Aid to the Blind?	1 ☐	2 ☐	$		
4. Social Security Disability Payments?	1 ☐	2 ☐	$		
5. Any other disability payment? – *Specify type*	1 ☐	2 ☐	$		
______			$		
______			$		
______			$		

IX. ASSETS AND INCOME – *Continued*

101. In 1966, did anyone in this family living here receive any other Social Security payments, such as old age or survivor's insurance?	101. 1☐ Yes – Who? 1☐ Respondent How much? $ ________ 2☐ Husband How much? $ ________ 3☐ Other How much? $ ________ 2☐ No
102. In 1966, did anyone in this family living here receive any Aid to Families with Dependent Children payments or other public assistance or welfare payments? *If "Yes"* – What type? ________________	102. 1☐ Yes→1☐ AFDC How much? $ ________ 2☐ Other How much? $ ________ 2☐ No
103. In 1966, did anyone in this family living here receive any income from participating in a program under Title V – Work Experience or Training for Unemployed Parents?	103. 1☐ Yes – How much? $ ________ 2☐ No
104a. In 1966, did anyone in this family living here buy any food stamps under the Government's Food Stamp Plan?	104a. 1☐ Yes – *ASK b – c* 2☐ No – *SKIP to 105*
b. In how many months did you buy stamps?	b. Months ________
c. How much was your monthly bonus?	c. $ ________
105a. In 1966, did anyone in this family living here receive any pensions from local, State, or Federal Government? *If "Yes"* – What type? ________________	105a. 1☐ Yes – How much? $ ________ 2☐ No
b. In 1966, did anyone in this family living here receive any other retirement pensions, such as private employee or personal retirement benefits? *If "Yes"* – What type? ________________	b. 1☐ Yes – How much? $ ________ 2☐ No
106. In 1966, did anyone in this family living here receive any other type of income, such as alimony, child support, contributions from family members living elsewhere, annuities, or anything else? *If "Yes"* – What type? ________________	106. 1☐ Yes – How much? $ ________ 2☐ No

Notes

IX. ASSETS AND INCOME – Continued

107. In 1966, did you (or your husband) purchase any of the following items?	107. Purchased?		Was it new or used?	
	Yes	No	New	Used
1. Washing machine	1 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	2 ☐
2. Clothes dryer	1 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	2 ☐
3. Electric or gas stove	1 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	2 ☐
4. Refrigerator	1 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	2 ☐
5. Freezer	1 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	2 ☐
6. Room air conditioner	1 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	2 ☐
7. Television	1 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	2 ☐
8. Garbage disposal	1 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	2 ☐
9. Hi–fi or stereo	1 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	2 ☐
10. Dishwasher	1 ☐	2 ☐	1 ☐	2 ☐

108. In 1966, did you make any major expenditures on housing such as remodeling or redecorating, plumbing, electrical work, roofing, painting, or heating which cost more than $200?	108. 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No
109. Aside from anything else you have mentioned, did you (or other members of your family) have any other major expenses in 1966 such as medical, dental, accident, travel, or education which cost more than $200?	109. 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No

Notes

I FAMILY BACKGROUND

110. Now I have some questions on your family background. Where were you born?	110. City or town ________ State ________ County ________ OR ☐ Outside U.S. – *Specify country* ________
111. For how long have you been living in this area? *(SMSA or county of CURRENT residence)?*	111. 1 ☐ Less than 1 year 2 ☐ 1 year or more – *Specify* ________ 3 ☐ All my life – *SKIP to 113*
112. Where did you live before moving to . . . *(Name of SMSA or county of CURRENT residence)?*	112. City or town ________ State ________ County ________ OR ☐ Outside U.S. – *Specify country* ________
113a. Now I'd like to ask about your parents. Are your mother and father living?	113a. 1 ☐ BOTH parents alive 2 ☐ MOTHER alive, father dead 3 ☐ FATHER alive, mother dead 4 ☐ NEITHER parent alive
b. What about your husband's parents – are his mother and father living?	b. 1 ☐ Respondent not married 2 ☐ BOTH parents alive 3 ☐ MOTHER alive, father dead 4 ☐ FATHER alive, mother dead 5 ☐ NEITHER parent alive
114. Were your parents born in the U.S. or some other country?	114.
a. Father	a. 1 ☐ U.S. 2 ☐ Other – *Specify* ________
b. Mother	b. 1 ☐ U.S. 2 ☐ Other – *Specify* ________ *If either parent born outside U.S. – SKIP to 116*
115. In what country were your grandparents born?	115.
a. Father's mother	a. 1 ☐ U.S. 2 ☐ Other – *Specify* ________
b. Father's father	b. 1 ☐ U.S. 2 ☐ Other – *Specify* ________
c. Mother's mother	c. 1 ☐ U.S. 2 ☐ Other – *Specify* ________
d. Mother's father	d. 1 ☐ U.S. 2 ☐ Other – *Specify* ________
116. When you were 15 years old, were you living –	116. 1 ☐ On a farm or ranch? 2 ☐ In the country, not on a farm or ranch? 3 ☐ In a town or small city (under 25,000)? 4 ☐ In the suburb of a large city? 5 ☐ In a city of 25,000 – 100,000? 6 ☐ In a large city of more than 100,000?

X. FAMILY BACKGROUND – Continued

117. With whom were you living when you were 15 years old? *If 6 or 7 marked – Specify* ____________________ ____________________	**117.** 1 ☐ Father and mother 2 ☐ Father and step-mother 3 ☐ Mother and step-father 4 ☐ Father 5 ☐ Mother 6 ☐ Some other adult relative } *Specify* 7 ☐ Some other arrangement } *Specify* 8 ☐ On my own – *SKIP to 120*

118a. What kind of work was your father doing when you were 15 years old? – *If respondent did not live with father at that age, ask about the work of the head of the household where she lived at age 15.*

____

b. What was the highest grade of school completed by your father (or the head of the household where you lived at age 15)?	**b.** 00 ☐ Never attended school 1 Elementary 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ 7 ☐ 8 ☐ 2 High 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 3 College 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6+ ☐ 99 ☐ Don't know

119a. What kind of work was your mother doing when you were 15 years old?

____

b. What was the highest grade of school completed by your mother?	**b.** 00 ☐ Never attended school 1 Elementary 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ 7 ☐ 8 ☐ 2 High 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 3 College 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6+ ☐ 99 ☐ Don't know

120a. How many persons, not counting yourself are dependent upon you (and your husband) for at least one-half of their support?	**120a.** Number ____________ 0 ☐ None – *SKIP to 121*
b. Do any of these dependents live somewhere else other than here at home with you? *If "Yes"* – What is their relationship to you? ____________________	**b.** 1 ☐ Yes – How many? ____________ 2 ☐ No
121. What is your Social Security number?	**121.** ☐☐☐ ☐☐ ☐☐☐☐

Continue with questions on page 32

Notes

Now I have a few questions about the education and work experience of the other family members living here.

Line number	**Name**	**Relation-ship to respondent**	**Age**	Persons 6 – 24 years old				Persons 25 years old and over		Persons 14 years old and over		
											If person worked at all in 1966	
	List below all persons living here who are related to respondent. *Enter the line number from the Household Record Card in column 122*	*(Example: husband, son, daughter-in-law, brother, etc.)*	*(As of April 1, 1967)*	**Is . . . attending or enrolled in school?** *Circle Y – Yes N – No*	*If "Yes"* – **what grade (year)?** *If "No"* – **What is the highest grade (year) . . . ever attended?**	**Did . . . finish this grade (year)?**	**How much school do you think . . . is going to get?**	**What is the highest grade (year) of regular school . . . has ever attended?**	**Did . . . finish this grade (year)?**	**In 1966, how many weeks did . . . work either full or part time (not counting work around the house)?**	**In the weeks that . . . worked, how many hours did . . . usually work per week?**	**What kind of work was . . . doing in 1966?** *If more than one, record the longest*
122	123a	123b	124	125	126	127	128	129	130	131	132	133
		Respondent										
				Y N		Y N			Y N			
				Y N		Y N			Y N			
				Y N		Y N			Y N			
				Y N		Y N			Y N			
				Y N		Y N			Y N			
				Y N		Y N			Y N			
				Y N		Y N			Y N			
				Y N		Y N			Y N			
				Y N		Y N			Y N			

134. *ASK at the completion of the interview. If more than one respondent in the household, ask for each.*

We would like to contact you again next year at this time to bring this information up to date. Would you please give me the name, address, and telephone number of two relatives or friends who will always know where you can be reached even if you move away? – *Enter information below*

Name	Relationship to respondent	Address	Telephone number
1.			
2.			

Notes

REFERENCE INFORMATION SHEET

A. Labor force status

☐ Group A

☐ Group B – Last job ended 19______

☐ Group C – Last job ended 19______

B. Marital status

☐ Never married, own children in household

☐ Never married, no children of own in household

☐ Is currently married

☐ Has been married, but not currently married

C. Year of respondent's (first) marriage: 19______

☐ Respondent has no children

D. Year first child born (first assumed responsibility for child): 19______

Notes

O.M.B. No. 41-R2546. Approval Expires December 31, 1973

NOTICE – Your report to the Census Bureau is confidential by law (Title 13, U.S. Code). It may be seen only by sworn Census employees and may be used only for statistical purposes.

FORM **LGT-351**
(12-30-71)

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
BUREAU OF THE CENSUS

NATIONAL LONGITUDINAL SURVEYS
SURVEY OF WORK EXPERIENCE OF MATURE WOMEN

1972

(001) 1 ☐ Respondent a noninterview in 1971 – *Go to page 29*

METHODS OF LOCATING RESPONDENT WHO HAS MOVED

	Successful	Unsuccessful	
(002)	1 ☐	2 ☐	New occupants
(003)	1 ☐	2 ☐	Neighbors
(004)	1 ☐	2 ☐	Apartment house manager
(005)	1 ☐	2 ☐	Post office
(006)	1 ☐	2 ☐	School
(007)	1 ☐	2 ☐	Persons listed on information sheet
(008)	1 ☐	2 ☐	Other – Specify ↴ ______

RECORD OF CALLS

Date	Time	Comments
	a.m. p.m.	
	a.m. p.m.	
	a.m. p.m.	
	a.m. p.m.	

RECORD OF INTERVIEW

(009) Date completed
Month / Day / Year

(010) Length of interview (minutes)

Interview time
Began: a.m. / p.m.
Ended: a.m. / p.m.

Interviewed by

NONINTERVIEW REASON

(011)
☐ Unable to contact respondent – *Specify* ______
6 ☐ Temporarily absent – *Give return date* ______
8 ☐ Institutionalized – *Specify type* ______
9 ☐ Refused ______
0 ☐ Deceased ______
A ☐ Other – *Specify* ______

TRANSCRIPTION FROM HOUSEHOLD RECORD CARD

Item 13 – Marital status of respondent

(012)
1 ☐ Married, spouse present
2 ☐ Married, spouse absent
3 ☐ Widowed
4 ☐ Divorced
5 ☐ Separated
6 ☐ Never married

If respondent has moved, enter new address

(013) (014) 1. Number and street

(015) 2. City | 3. County | 4. State | **5. ZIP code**

1. CURRENT LABOR FORCE STATUS

1. **What were you doing most of LAST WEEK – working, keeping house, or something else?**

(016) 1 ☐ WK – Working – Skip to 2b
2 ☐ J – With a job but not at work
3 ☐ LK – Looking for work
4 ☐ S – Going to school
5 ☐ KH – Keeping house
6 ☐ U – Unable to work – SKIP to 5
7 ☐ OT – Other – Specify

2c. **Do you USUALLY work 35 hours or more a week at this job?**

(017) 1 ☐ Yes – **What is the reason you worked less than 35 hours LAST WEEK?**
2 ☐ No – **What is the reason you USUALLY work less than 35 hours a week?**

(Mark the appropriate reason)

(018) 1 ☐ Slack work
2 ☐ Material shortage
3 ☐ Plant or machine repair
4 ☐ New job started during week
5 ☐ Job terminated during week
6 ☐ Could find only part-time work
7 ☐ Holiday (legal or religious)
8 ☐ Labor dispute
9 ☐ Bad weather
10 ☐ Own illness
11 ☐ Illness of family member
12 ☐ On vacation
13 ☐ Too busy with housework
14 ☐ Too busy with school, personal business, etc.
15 ☐ Did not want full-time work
16 ☐ Full-time work week under 35 hours
17 ☐ Other reason – Specify

If entry in 2c, SKIP to 6a and enter job worked at last week.

2a. **Did you do any work at all LAST WEEK, not counting work around the house?**

NOTE: If farm or business operator in household, ask about unpaid work.

(019) 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No – SKIP to 3a

2b. **How many hours did you work LAST WEEK at all jobs?**

(020) ________ Hours

CHECK ITEM A

Respondent worked –
☐ 49 or more – SKIP to 6a
☐ 1 – 34 – ASK 2c
☐ 35 – 48 – ASK 2d

2d. **Did you lose any time or take any time off LAST WEEK for any reason such as illness, holiday, or slack work?**

☐ Yes – **How many hours did you take off?**

(021) ________ Hours

0 ☐ No

NOTE: Correct 2b if lost time not already deducted; if 2b reduced below 35, fill 2c, otherwise SKIP to 6a.

2e. **Did you work any overtime or at more than one job LAST WEEK?**

☐ Yes – **How many extra hours did you work?**

(022) ________ Hours

0 ☐ No

NOTE: Correct 2b if extra hours not already included and SKIP to 6a

(If "J" in 1, SKIP to b)

3a. **Did you have a job (or business) from which you were temporarily absent or on layoff LAST WEEK?**

(023) 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ NO – SKIP to 4a

3b. **Why were you absent from work LAST WEEK?**

(024) 1 ☐ Own illness
2 ☐ Illness of family member
3 ☐ On vacation
4 ☐ Too busy with housework, school, personal business
5 ☐ Bad weather
6 ☐ Labor dispute
7 ☐ New job to begin within 30 days – } *ASK 4c and 4d(2)*
8 ☐ Temporary layoff (under 30 days) }
9 ☐ Indefinite layoff (30 days or more or no definite recall date) } *ASK 4d(3)*
10 ☐ Other – Specify

3c. **Are you getting wages or salary for any of the time off LAST WEEK?**

(025) 1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No
3 ☐ Self-employed

3d. **Do you usually work 35 hours or more a week at this job?**

(026) 1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No

SKIP to 6a and enter job held last week.

Notes

1. CURRENT LABOR FORCE STATUS – *Continued*

(If "LK" in 1, SKIP to b)

4a. **Have you been looking for work during the past 4 weeks?**

(027) 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK 4b*

2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 5*

b. **What have you been doing in the last 4 weeks to find work?**

(Mark all methods used; do not read list)

(028) 0 ☐ Nothing – *SKIP to 5*

Checked with
- 1 ☐ State employment agency
- 2 ☐ Private employment agency
- 3 ☐ Employer directly
- 4 ☐ Friends or relatives

5 ☐ Placed or answered ads

6 ☐ Other – *Specify – e.g., MDTA, union or professional register, etc.*

c. **Why did you start looking for work? Was it because you lost or quit a job at that time** *(pause)* **or was there some other reason?**

(029) 1 ☐ Lost job

2 ☐ Quit job

3 ☐ Wanted temporary work

4 ☐ Children are older

5 ☐ Enjoy working

6 ☐ Help with family expenses

7 ☐ Other – *Specify*

d.(1) **How many weeks have you been looking for work?**

(2) **How many weeks ago did you start looking for work?**

(3) **How many weeks ago were you laid off?**

(030) ______ Weeks

e. **Have you been looking for full-time or part-time work?**

(031) 1 ☐ Full-time

2 ☐ Part-time

f. **Is there any reason why you could not take a job LAST WEEK?**

(032) Yes →
- 1 ☐ Already has a job
- 2 ☐ Temporary illness
- 3 ☐ Going to school
- 4 ☐ Other – *Specify*

5 ☐ No

g. **When did you last work at a regular job or business lasting two consecutive weeks or more, either full-time or part-time?**

☐ Date of last interview or later (item 101R on Information Sheet) – *Specify*

(033)

Month	Day	Year

– *SKIP to 14a on page 7*

3 ☐ All others – *SKIP to 15a on page 7*

5. **When did you last work at a regular job or business lasting two consecutive weeks or more, either full-time or part-time?**

☐ Date of last interview or later (item 101R on Information Sheet) – *Specify*

(034)

Month	Day	Year

– *SKIP to 14a on page 7*

2 ☐ "Unable" now and "Unable" in item 102R on the Information Sheet – *SKIP to 66a on page 24*

3 ☐ All others – *SKIP to 15a on page 7*

6a. (035) ☐ **DESCRIPTION OF JOB OR BUSINESS**

(1) **For whom did you work?** *(Name of company, business, organization or other employer)*

(2) **Is this the full and complete name of the company?**

☐ Yes

☐ No – **What is the full and complete name?**

(3) **Do you ever refer to the company by any other name?**

☐ Yes – **What is that name?**

☐ No

(4) **To the best of your knowledge, has the name of the company changed in the past five years?**

☐ Yes – **What was the name?**

☐ No

(036) ☐☐

b. **In what city and State is . . . located?**

______ City ______ State

(037) ☐☐☐☐

c. **What kind of business or industry is this?** *(For example: TV and radio manufacturer, retail shoe store, State Labor Department, farm)*

d. **Were you –**

(038) 10 ☐ P – **An employee of a PRIVATE company, business, or individual for wages, salary, or commissions?**

20 ☐ G – **A GOVERNMENT employee (Federal, State, county, or local)**

30 ☐ O – **Self-employed in your OWN business, professional practice, or farm?**

(If not a farm)

Is this business incorporated?

31 ☐ Yes 32 ☐ No

40 ☐ WP – **Working WITHOUT PAY in family business or farm?**

(039) ☐☐☐☐

e. **What kind of work were you doing?** *(For example: registered nurse, high school English teacher, waitress)*

f. **What were your most important activities or duties?** *(For example: types, keeps account books, files, sells millinery, operates business machine, cleans buildings)*

g. **When did you start working for** *(entry in 6a)*?

(040)

Month	Day	Year

1. CURRENT LABOR FORCE STATUS – Continued

CHECK ITEM B		☐ "P" or "G" in item 6d – ASK 7a ☐ "O" or "WP" in item 6d – SKIP to 7m
7a. Altogether, how much do you usually earn at this job before deductions?	7a.	(042) $ ______ (Dollars) ______ (Cents) per (043) 1 ☐ Hour OR (044) $ ______ . 00 per: (Dollars only) (045) 2 ☐ Day 3 ☐ Week 4 ☐ Biweekly 5 ☐ Month 6 ☐ Year 7 ☐ Other – *Specify* ______
7b. How many hours per week do you usually work at this job?	b.	(046) ______ Hours
c. Do you receive extra pay when you work over a certain number of hours?	c.	(047) 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK d* 2 ☐ No 3 ☐ No, but received compensating time off 4 ☐ Never work overtime } *SKIP to f*
d. After how many hours do you receive extra pay?	d.	(048) ______ Hours per day (049) ______ Hours per week
e. For all hours worked over *(entry in d)* **are you paid straight time, time and one-half, double time or what?**	e.	(050) 1 ☐ Compensating time off 2 ☐ Straight time 3 ☐ Time and one-half 4 ☐ Double time 5 ☐ Other – *Specify* ______
f. Are your wages (salary) on this job set by a collective bargaining agreement between your employer and a union or employee association?	f.	(051) 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK g* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to i*
g. What is the name of the union or employee association?	g.	(052) ☐ ______
h. Are you a member of that union or employee association?	h.	(053) 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No
i. Do you generally work the same days each week and the same hours each day?	i.	(054) 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK j* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to k*
j. What hours do you usually work?	j.	(055) 1 ☐ Regular day shift 2 ☐ Regular evening shift 3 ☐ Regular night shift 4 ☐ Split shift
k. Some people would like to work more hours a week if they could be paid for it. Others would prefer to work fewer hours a week even if they earned less. Would you prefer more hours and more pay, fewer hours and less pay, or about the same number of hours at the same pay?	k.	(056) 1 ☐ More hours and more pay 2 ☐ Fewer hours and less pay } *ASK l* 3 ☐ Same hours at the same pay – *SKIP to 8a*
l. About how many hours would you like to work?	l.	(057) ______ Hours – *SKIP to 8a*
m. How many hours per week do you usually work at this job?	m.	(058) ______ Hours per week

1. CURRENT LABOR FORCE STATUS – Continued

8a.	**How long does it usually take you to get to work?**	8a. (059) ☐☐☐ ______ Hours ______ Minutes
b.	**What means of transportation do you usually use to get to work?** *(Mark as many boxes as apply)* If "Other," specify here ________________	b. (060) 1 ☐ Own auto – *ASK c(1)* 2 ☐ Ride with someone else 3 ☐ Bus or streetcar 4 ☐ Subway or elevated 5 ☐ Railroad 6 ☐ Taxicab (2–6) } *SKIP to c(2)* 7 ☐ Walk only 8 ☐ Other (7–8) } *SKIP to Check Item C*
c.(1)	**What is the total round trip cost of any parking fees or tolls you have to pay when you drive your own auto?**	c. (1) (061) $______ . ______ per: *(Dollars)* *(Cents)* (062) 0 ☐ No cost 1 ☐ Day 2 ☐ Week 3 ☐ Month
(2)	**How many miles do you go round trip?**	(2) (063) ______ Miles
	☐ Only box 1 marked in b – *SKIP to Check Item C* ☐ Box 1 and any of boxes 2–6 marked in b – *ASK d*	
d.	**What is the total cost of the round trip by** *(means of transportation in b other than own auto)*?	d. (064) $______ . ______ per: *(Dollars)* *(Cents)* (065) 0 ☐ No cost 1 ☐ Day 2 ☐ Week 3 ☐ Month
CHECK ITEM C	☐ Entry in 3b – *SKIP to 9d* Item 3b is blank, and – ☐ Entry in 6d is "P" or "G" – *ASK 9a* ☐ Entry in 6d is "O" or "WP" – *SKIP to 9c*	
9a.	**Did you work for more than one employer last week?**	9a. (066) 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to 10a* 2 ☐ No – *ASK b*
b.	**In addition to working for wages and salary did you operate your own farm, business, or profession last week?**	b. (067) 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to 10a* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to d*
c.	**In addition to this work, did you do any work for wages or salary last week?**	c. (068) 1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to 10a* 2 ☐ No – *ASK d*
d.	**Did you have any other job at which you did not work at all last week?**	d. (069) 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK 10a* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 11a*

Notes

1. CURRENT LABOR FORCE STATUS – Continued

10a. For whom did you work in addition to *(entry in 6a)*? *(Name of company, business organization or other employer)*	10a. (070) ☐
b. What kind of business or industry is this? *(For example TV and radio manufacturer, retail shoe store, State Labor Department, farm)*	b. (071) ☐☐☐
c. Were you –	c. (072) 1 ☐ P – **An employee of a PRIVATE company, business or individual for wages, salary, or commission?** 2 ☐ G – **A GOVERNMENT employee (Federal, State, county or local)?** 3 ☐ O – **Self-employed in your OWN business, professional practice or farm?** 4 ☐ WP – **Working WITHOUT PAY in family business or farm?**
d. What kind of work were you doing? *(For example registered nurse, high school English teacher, waitress)*	d. (073) ☐☐☐
e. What were your most important activities or duties? *(For example typing, keeping account books, filing, selling millinery)*	e.
CHECK ITEM D	☐ If "P" or "G" in item 10c – ASK *f* ☐ If "O" or "WP" in item 10c – SKIP to *g*
10f. Altogether how much do you usually earn at this job before deductions?	10f. (074) $______ . ______ per (Dollars) (Cents) (075) 1 ☐ Hour OR (076) $______ . 00 per (Dollars only) (077) 2 ☐ Day 3 ☐ Week 4 ☐ Biweekly 5 ☐ Month 6 ☐ Year 7 ☐ Other – Specify ______
g. How many hours per week do you usually work at this job?	g. (078) ______ Hours per week
h. When did you start working as a *(entry in 10d)* **for** *(entry in 10a)*?	h. (079) Month Day Year
11a. Before you began to work as a *(entry in 6e)* **for** *(entry in 6a(1))*, **did you do any other kind of work for** *(entry in 6a(1))*?	11a. (080) 1 ☐ Yes – SKIP to 12a 2 ☐ No
b. Excluding paid vacations and paid sick leave, during the time you have worked at this job, were there any full weeks in which you didn't work *(since date of last interview)*?	b. ☐ Yes – **How many weeks?** (081) ______ Weeks ☐ No – SKIP to Check Item E
c. Why were you not working during these ______ weeks?	c. (082) 1 ☐ Personal, family reasons 2 ☐ Own illness 3 ☐ Child care problems 4 ☐ Pregnancy 5 ☐ Layoff 6 ☐ Labor dispute 7 ☐ Did not want to work 8 ☐ Vacation 9 ☐ Other

1. CURRENT LABOR FORCE STATUS – Continued

CHECK ITEM E

Refer to item 6G and 10IR

☐ Current job started date of last interview or later – *SKIP to 13*

☐ Current job started before date of last interview – *SKIP to Check Item L on page 10*

12a. When did you start working as a *(entry in 6e)* **for** *(entry in 6a)***?**

12a. (083) Month ____ Day ____ Year ____

b. Excluding paid vacations and paid sick leave, during the time you have worked as a *(entry in 6e)* **for** *(entry in 6a)* **were there any full weeks in which you didn't work** *(since date of last interview)***?**

b. ☐ Yes – **How many weeks?**

(084) ______ Weeks

0 ☐ No – *SKIP to Check Item F*

c. Why were you not working during these ______ weeks?

c. (085)

1 ☐ Personal, family reasons
2 ☐ Own illness
3 ☐ Child care problems
4 ☐ Pregnancy
5 ☐ Layoff
6 ☐ Labor dispute
7 ☐ Did not want to work
8 ☐ Vacation
9 ☐ Other

If "Other," specify here ⤵

____

CHECK ITEM F

☐ Item 12a is earlier than date of last interview – *SKIP to Check Item L on page 10*

☐ Item 12a is date of last interview or later – *ASK 13*

13. Just before you started on this job, was there a period of a week or more in which you were not working?

13. (086)

1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to 26 on page 9*
2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 16*

14a. You said you last worked at a regular job on *(entry in 4g or 5)*

14a.

(Interviewer: Use calendar to determine the number of weeks since respondent last worked)

(1) (087) ______ Weeks since last worked

That would be about ______ weeks since you last worked. In how many of these weeks were you looking for work or on layoff from a job?

(2) (088) ______ Weeks looking or on layoff

CHECK ITEM G

☐ 14a(1) is equal to 14a(2) – *SKIP to 16*

☐ 14a(1) is greater than 14a(2) – *ASK b*

14b. That leaves ______ weeks that you were not working or looking for work. What would you say was the main reason you were not looking for work during that period?

14b. (089) ______ Weeks

(090)

1 ☐ Personal, family reasons
2 ☐ Own illness
3 ☐ Child care problems
4 ☐ Pregnancy
5 ☐ Layoff
6 ☐ Labor dispute
7 ☐ Did not want to work
8 ☐ Vacation

} SKIP to 16

9 ☐ Other – Specify ______________________

15a. Since *(date of last interview)* **in how many different weeks did you do any work at all?**

15a. (091) ______ Weeks

0 ☐ None

b. Since *(date of last interview)* **have you spent any weeks looking for work or on layoff from a job?**

b. ☐ Yes – **How many weeks?**

(092) ______ Weeks

0 ☐ No

CHECK ITEM H

Interviewer: Use calendar to determine the number of weeks since date of last interview.

(1) (093) ______ Weeks *(since date of last interview)*

(2) (094) ______ Weeks working, on layoff, or looking for work

☐ (1) is equal to (2) – *SKIP to Check Item L on page 10*

☐ (1) is greater than (2) – *ASK 15c*

15c. What would you say was the main reason you were not looking for work during (the rest of) that time?

15. (095)

1 ☐ Personal, family reasons
2 ☐ Own illness
3 ☐ Child care problems
4 ☐ Pregnancy
5 ☐ Layoff
6 ☐ Labor dispute
7 ☐ Did not want to work
8 ☐ Vacation

} SKIP to Check Item L on page 10

9 ☐ Other

(If "Other," specify here ⤵

____

Notes

(096) ____

(097) ____

(098) ____

II. WORK EXPERIENCE AND ATTITUDES

		(1)	(2)	(3)
16. Now let's talk about – **The job you worked at before you started to work as a** *(ENTRY IN 6a OR 16e)* **for** *(ENTRY IN 6a OR 16a)*, **The last job you worked at; that is, the one which ended on** *(ENTRY IN 4g OR 5)* **a. For whom did you work? (Name of company, business, organization or other employer)**	16. a.	(099) ☐ Same as 6a – SKIP to 16e ________	________ (122) ☐ Never worked before – SKIP to Check Item L ☐ Same as ____ – SKIP to 16e	________ (145) ☐ Never worked before – SKIP to Check Item L ☐ Same as ____ – SKIP to 16e
b. In what city and State is . . . located?	b.	(100) ☐☐ City, State	(123) ☐☐ City, State	(146) ☐☐ City, State
c. What kind of business or industry is this? *(E.g. – TV and radio manufacturer, retail shoe store, State Labor Department, farm)*	c.	(101) ☐☐☐	(124) ☐☐☐	(147) ☐☐☐
d. Class of worker	d.	(102) 1 ☐ P 2 ☐ G 3 ☐ O 4 ☐ WP	(125) 1 ☐ P 2 ☐ G 3 ☐ O 4 ☐ WP	(148) 1 ☐ P 2 ☐ G 3 ☐ O 4 ☐ WP
e. What kind of work were you doing? *(E.g. – registered nurse, high school English teacher, waitress)*	e.	(103) ☐☐☐	(126) ☐☐☐	(149) ☐☐☐
f. What were your most important activities or duties? *(E.g. – selling clothing, typing, keeping account books, filing)*	f.	________	________	________
17a. Altogether, how much did you usually earn at this job before all deductions?	17a.	(104) $ ______ (105) ☐ per ______	(127) $ ______ (128) ☐ per ______	(150) $ ______ (151) ☐ per ______
b. How many hours per week did you usually work at this job?	b.	(106) ______ Hours	(129) ______ Hours	(152) ______ Hours
18a. When did you start working as a *(ENTRY IN 16e)* **for** *(ENTRY IN 16a)*?	18a.	(107) Month Day Year	(130) Month Day Year	(153) Month Day Year
b. When did you stop working as a *(ENTRY IN 16e)* **for** *(ENTRY IN 16a)*?	b.	(108) Month Day Year x ☐ Still working there – SKIP to 20	(131) Month Day Year x ☐ Still working there – SKIP to 20	(154) Month Day Year x ☐ Still working there – SKIP to 20
19a. Why did you happen to leave this job (change the kind of work you were doing)?	19a.	(109) ☐☐	(132) ☐☐	(155) ☐☐
b. Did you have a new job lined up at the time you left this one?	b.	(110) 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No	(133) 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No	(156) 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No
20. Excluding paid vacations and paid sick leave, during the time you worked at this job were there any full weeks in which you didn't work on this job *(since date of last interview)*?	20.	☐ Yes – **How many weeks?** (111) ____ **Weeks** – ASK 21a 0 ☐ No – SKIP to 22	☐ Yes – **How many weeks?** (134) ____ **Weeks** – ASK 21a 0 ☐ NO – SKIP to 22	☐ Yes – **How many weeks?** (137) ____ **Weeks** – ASK 21a 0 ☐ No – SKIP to 22

21a. Why were you not working during these . . . weeks at this job? 21a.	(112) 1 ☐ Personal family reasons 2 ☐ Own illness 3 ☐ Child care problems 4 ☐ Pregnancy 5 ☐ Layoff 6 ☐ Labor dispute 7 ☐ Did not want to work 8 ☐ Vacation 9 ☐ Other – Specify ______	(135) 1 ☐ Personal family reasons 2 ☐ Own illness 3 ☐ Child care problems 4 ☐ Pregnancy 5 ☐ Layoff 6 ☐ Labor dispute 7 ☐ Did not want to work 8 ☐ Vacation 9 ☐ Other – Specify ______	(158) 1 ☐ Personal family reasons 2 ☐ Own illness 3 ☐ Child care problems 4 ☐ Pregnancy 5 ☐ Layoff 6 ☐ Labor dispute 7 ☐ Did not want to work 8 ☐ Vacation 9 ☐ Other – Specify ______
b. Were you working for someone else during this period(s)? b.	(113) 1 ☐ Yes – GO to next column, enter data about this job 2 ☐ No	(136) 1 ☐ Yes – GO to next column, enter data about this job 2 ☐ No	(159) 1 ☐ Yes – GO to next column, enter data about this job 2 ☐ No
☐ Date in 18a is before date of last interview – *SKIP to Check Item I.* **22. Did you do any other kind of work for** *(ENTRY IN 16a)* **between** *(Date in 18a)* **and** *(Date of last interview)*? 22.	(114) 1 ☐ Yes – GO to next column, enter data about this job 2 ☐ No	(137) 1 ☐ Yes – GO to next column, enter data about this job 2 ☐ No	(160) 1 ☐ Yes – GO to next column, enter data about this job 2 ☐ No
CHECK ITEM I — Item 18a is: 1. Date of last interview or later 1. 2. Before date of last interview 2.	☐ – *SKIP to 24* ☐ – *ASK 23*	☐ – *SKIP to 24* ☐ – *ASK 23*	☐ – *SKIP to 24* ☐ – *ASK 23*
23. Have you worked for anyone else *(since date of last interview)*? 23.	(115) 1 ☐ Yes – GO to next column, enter information 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to Check Item L*	(138) 1 ☐ Yes – GO to next column, enter information 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to Check Item L*	(161) 1 ☐ Yes – GO to next column, enter information 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to Check Item L*
24. While you were working for *(ENTRY IN 16a)* **were you also working for someone else?** 24.	(116) 1 ☐ Yes – GO to next column, enter data about simultaneous job 2 ☐ No – ASK 25	(139) 1 ☐ Yes – GO to next column, enter data about simultaneous job 2 ☐ No – ASK 25	(162) 1 ☐ Yes – GO to next column, enter data about simultaneous job 2 ☐ No – ASK 25
25. JUST before you started working as a *(ENTRY IN 16a)* **for** *(ENTRY IN 16a)* **was there a period of a week or more in which you were not working?** 25.	(117) 1 ☐ Yes – ASK 26 2 ☐ No – GO to next column, enter data about previous job	(140) 1 ☐ Yes – ASK 26 2 ☐ No – GO to next column, enter data about previous job	(163) 1 ☐ Yes – ASK 26 2 ☐ No – GO to next column, enter data about previous job
26. When did this period in which you were not working start? 26.	(118) Month | Day | Year x ☐ Never worked before	(141) Month | Day | Year x ☐ Never worked before	(164) Month | Day | Year x ☐ Never worked before
27a. Interviewer: Determine number of weeks not working. If item 26 is before date of last interview, count only weeks since that time. 27a.	(119) ______ Weeks not working	(142) ______ Weeks not working	(165) ______ Weeks not working
b. That would be about . . . weeks that you were not working. How many of these weeks were you looking for work or on layoff from a job? b.	(120) ______ Weeks looking or on layoff	(143) ______ Weeks looking or on layoff	(166) ______ Weeks looking or on layoff
CHECK ITEM J — 1. 27a is equal to 27b 1. 2. 27a is greater than 27b 2.	☐ – *SKIP to Check Item K* ☐ – *ASK 28*	☐ – *SKIP to Check Item K* ☐ – *ASK 28*	☐ – *SKIP to Check Item K* ☐ – *ASK 28*
28. That leaves . . . weeks that you were not working or looking for work. What would you say was the main reason that you were not looking for work during that period? 28.	(121) 1 ☐ Personal family reasons 2 ☐ Own illness 3 ☐ Child care problems 4 ☐ Pregnancy 5 ☐ Layoff 6 ☐ Labor dispute 7 ☐ Did not want to work 8 ☐ Vacation 9 ☐ Other – Specify ______	(144) 1 ☐ Personal family reasons 2 ☐ Own illness 3 ☐ Child care problems 4 ☐ Pergnancy 5 ☐ Layoff 6 ☐ Labor dispute 7 ☐ Did not want to work 8 ☐ Vacation 9 ☐ Other – Specify ______	(167) 1 ☐ Personal family reasons 2 ☐ Own illness 3 ☐ Child care problems 4 ☐ Pregnancy 5 ☐ Layoff 6 ☐ Labor dispute 7 ☐ Did not want to work 8 ☐ Vacation 9 ☐ Other – Specify ______
CHECK ITEM K — 1. Item 26 is date of last interview or later 1. 2. Item 26 is before date of last interview 2.	☐ – GO to next column, enter data about previous job ☐ – *SKIP to Check Item L*	☐ – GO to next column, enter data about previous job ☐ – *SKIP to Check Item L*	☐ – GO to next column, enter data about previous job ☐ – *SKIP to Check Item L*

II. WORK EXPERIENCE AND ATTITUDES – Continued

CHECK ITEM L

Respondent is in –
☐ Labor Force Group A ("WK" or "J" in 1 or "Yes" in 2a or 3a) – *SKIP to Check Item M on page 11*
☐ Labor Force Group B ("LK" in 1 or "Yes" in 4a) – *SKIP to 31a*
☐ Labor Force Group C (All others) – *ASK 29a*

29a. Do you intend to look for work of any kind in the next 12 months?

29a. (260)
1 ☐ Yes – definitely } *ASK b*
2 ☐ Yes – probably }
☐ Maybe – **What does it depend on?** ______________ } *SKIP to 30a*
____
3 ☐ No } *SKIP to 30a*
4 ☐ Don't know }

b. When do you intend to start looking for work?

b. (261) ____________ Month

c. What kind of work do you think you will look for?

c. (262) ☐☐☐

d. What will you do to find work?
(Mark as many as apply)

d. (263)
Check with
1 ☐ State employment agency (or counselor)
2 ☐ Private employment agency
3 ☐ Directly with employer
4 ☐ Friends or relatives
5 ☐ Place or answer newspaper ads
6 ☐ Other – *Specify* ______________

30a. Why would you say that you are not looking for work at this time?

30a. (264)
1 ☐ Health reasons
2 ☐ Husband would not agree
3 ☐ Believes no work available
4 ☐ Does not want to work
5 ☐ No adequate child care
6 ☐ Pregnancy
7 ☐ Personal, family reasons
8 ☐ Other – *Specify* ______________

b. If you were offered a job by some employer in THIS AREA, do you think you would take it?

b. (265)
1 ☐ Yes, definitely
2 ☐ Yes, if it is something I can do
3 ☐ Yes, if satisfactory wage
4 ☐ Yes, if satisfactory location
5 ☐ Yes, if child care available
6 ☐ Yes, if husband agrees
7 ☐ Yes, if other ______________
} *ASK c*

8 ☐ No, health won't permit
9 ☐ No, don't want to work (no need to)
10 ☐ No, husband doesn't want me to
11 ☐ No, too busy with home and/or family
12 ☐ No, other ______________
} *SKIP to 41 on page 13*

c. How many hours per week would you be willing to work?

c. (266)
1 ☐ 1–4
2 ☐ 5–14
3 ☐ 15–24
4 ☐ 25–34
5 ☐ 35–40
6 ☐ 41–48
7 ☐ 49 or more

d. What kind of work would it have to be?

d. (267) ☐☐☐

e. What would the wage or salary have to be?

e. (268) $ ____________ . ______ per:
(Dollars) *(Cents)*
(269) 1 ☐ Hour
OR
(270) $ ____________ . 00 per:
(Dollars)
(271)
2 ☐ Day
3 ☐ Week
4 ☐ Biweekly
5 ☐ Month
6 ☐ Year
7 ☐ Any pay
8 ☐ Other – *Specify* ______________
} *SKIP to 41 on page 13*

II. WORK EXPERIENCE AND ATTITUDES – Continued

31a. What type of work are you looking for?	31a.	(272) ☐☐☐
b. What would the wage or salary have to be for you to be willing to take it?	b.	(273) $________ . ________ per: *(Dollars)* *(Cents)* (274) 1 ☐ Hour OR (275) $________ . 00 per: *(Dollars)* (276) 2 ☐ Day 3 ☐ Week 4 ☐ Biweekly 5 ☐ Month 6 ☐ Year 7 ☐ Other – Specify________ 8 ☐ Any pay
32a. Are there any restrictions, such as hours or location of job that would be a factor in your taking a job?	32a.	(277) 1 ☐ Yes – ASK *b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 41 on page 13*
b. What are these restrictions?	b.	(278) ☐ ________ ________ *SKIP to 41 on page 13*
CHECK ITEM M		Respondent – ☐ Was in Labor Force Group C in 1971. *(Item 102R on Information Sheet)* – *ASK 33* ☐ All others – *SKIP to 34*
33. **At this time in 1971, you were not looking for work. What made you decide to take a job?**	33.	(279) 1 ☐ Recovered from illness (include pregnancy) 2 ☐ Wanted to work 3 ☐ Adequate child care available 4 ☐ Needed money 5 ☐ Children can care for themselves 6 ☐ Other – Specify________
34. **How do you feel about the job you have now? Do you like it very much, like it fairly well, dislike it somewhat, dislike it very much?**	34.	(280) 1 ☐ Like it very much 2 ☐ Like it fairly well 3 ☐ Dislike it somewhat 4 ☐ Dislike it very much
35. **What are the things you like best about your job?**	35.	(281) ☐☐ (1) ________ (282) ☐☐ (2) ________ (283) ☐☐ (3)
36. **What are the things about your job that you don't like?**	36.	(284) ☐☐ (1) ________ (285) ☐☐ (2) ________ (286) ☐☐ (3)

Notes

II. WORK EXPERIENCE AND ATTITUDES – Continued

37. Suppose someone IN THIS AREA offered you a job in the same line of work you're in now. How much would the new job have to pay for you to be willing to take it?
(If amount given per hour, record dollars and cents. Otherwise, round to the nearest dollar.)

37.
(287) $________ . _____ per:
(Dollars) *(Cents)*
(288) 1 ☐ Hour
OR
(289) $________ . 00 per:
(Dollars only)
(290) 2 ☐ Day
3 ☐ Week
4 ☐ Biweekly
5 ☐ Month
6 ☐ Year
7 ☐ Other – *Specify* __________

(291) 8 ☐ I wouldn't take it at any conceivable pay
9 ☐ I would take a steady job at same or less pay
10 ☐ Would accept job; don't know specific amount
11 ☐ Don't know
12 ☐ Other

CHECK ITEM N
☐ *Respondent currently married – SKIP to Check Item O*
☐ *Respondent not married – ASK 38*

38. What if this job were IN SOME OTHER PART OF THE COUNTRY – how much would it have to pay in order for you to be willing to take it?
(If amount given per hour, record dollars and cents. Otherwise, round to the nearest dollar.)

38.
(292) $________ . _____ per:
(Dollars) *(Cents)*
(293) 1 ☐ Hour
OR
(294) $________ . 00 per:
(Dollars only)
(295) 2 ☐ Day
3 ☐ Week
4 ☐ Biweekly
5 ☐ Month
6 ☐ Year
7 ☐ Other – *Specify* __________

(296) 8 ☐ I wouldn't take it at any conceivable pay
9 ☐ I would take a steady job at same or less pay
10 ☐ Would accept job; don't know specific amount
11 ☐ Depends on location, cost of living
12 ☐ Don't know
13 ☐ Other

CHECK ITEM O
Refer to item 102R on the Information Sheet.
☐ *Respondent in Labor Force Group A in 1971 – ASK 39*
☐ *All other – SKIP to 41*

39. Would you say you like your present job more, less, or about the same as (the job you held) last year?

39.
(297) 1 ☐ More } *ASK 40*
2 ☐ Less } *ASK 40*
3 ☐ Same – *SKIP to 41*

40. What would you say is the main reason that you like your present job (more, less)?

40.
(298) ☐☐

Notes

(299)
(300)
(301)

41. We are interested in your opinion about the employment of wives. *(HAND CARD Ⓐ TO RESPONDENT).* I will read you a series of statements and after each one I would like to know whether you: strongly agree, agree, disagree, or strongly disagree?

Statements		Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Undecided
a. Modern conveniences permit a wife to work without neglecting her family	(302)	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
b. A woman's place is in the home, not in the office or shop	(303)	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
c. A job provides a wife with interesting outside contacts	(304)	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
d. A wife who carries out her full family responsibilities doesn't have time for outside employment	(305)	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
e. A working wife feels more useful than one who doesn't hold a job	(306)	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
f. The employment of wives leads to more juvenile deliquency	(307)	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
g. Working wives help to raise the general standard of living	(308)	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
h. Working wives lose interest in their homes and families	(309)	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
i. Employment of both parents is necessary to keep up with the high cost of living	(310)	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐

42. Now I'd like your opinion about women working. People have different ideas about whether married women should work. Here are three statements about a married woman with children between the ages of 6 and 12. *(HAND CARD Ⓑ TO RESPONDENT).* In each case, how do you feel about such a woman taking a full-time job outside the home: it is definitely all right, probably all right, probably not all right, or definitely not all right?

Statements		Definitely all right	Probably all right	Probably not all right	Definitely not all right	No opinion, undecided
a. If it is absolutely necessary to make ends meet	(311)	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
b. If she wants to work and her husband agrees	(312)	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐
c. If she wants to work, even if her husband does not particularly like the idea	(313)	1 ☐	2 ☐	3 ☐	4 ☐	5 ☐

CHECK ITEM P

Respondent is married and –
- ☐ In Labor Force Group A or B – *ASK d*
- ☐ In Labor Force Group C – *SKIP to e*

☐ Respondent is not married – *SKIP to 43*

42d. How does your husband feel about your working – does he like it very much, like it somewhat, not care either way, dislike it somewhat, or dislike it very much?

d. (314)
1 ☐ Like it very much
2 ☐ Like it somewhat
3 ☐ Not care either way
4 ☐ Dislike it somewhat
5 ☐ Dislike it very much
SKIP to 43

e. How do you think your husband would feel about your working now – would he like it very much, like it somewhat, not care either way, dislike it somewhat, or dislike it very much?

e. (315)
1 ☐ Like it very much
2 ☐ Like it somewhat
3 ☐ Not care either way
4 ☐ Dislike it somewhat
5 ☐ Dislike it very much

Notes

II. WORK EXPERIENCE AND ATTITUDES – Continued

43. **We would like to find out whether people's outlook on life has any effect on the kind of jobs they have, the way they look for work, how much they work, and matters of that kind. On each of these cards is a pair of statements numbered 1 and 2. For each pair, please select the ONE statement which is closer to your opinion. In addition, tell us whether the statement you select is MUCH CLOSER to your opinion or SLIGHTLY CLOSER.**

In some cases you may find that you believe both statements, in other cases you may believe neither one. Even when you feel this way about a pair of statements, select the one statement which is more nearly true in your opinion.

Try to consider each pair of statements separately when making your choices; do not be influenced by your previous choices.

a. (316)
1 ☐ Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.
2 ☐ People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.

Is this statement much closer or slightly closer to your opinion?
8 ☐ Much 9 ☐ Slightly

b. (317)
1 ☐ In the long run, people get the respect they deserve in this world.
2 ☐ Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries.

Is this statement much closer or slightly closer to your opinion?
8 ☐ Much 9 ☐ Slightly

c. (318)
1 ☐ Without the right breaks, one cannot be an effective leader.
2 ☐ Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.

Is this statement much closer or slightly closer to your opinion?
8 ☐ Much 9 ☐ Slightly

d. (319)
1 ☐ Becoming a success is a matter of hard work; luck has little or nothing to do with it.
2 ☐ Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.

Is this statement much closer or slightly closer to your opinion?
8 ☐ Much 9 ☐ Slightly

e. (320)
1 ☐ What happens to me is my own doing.
2 ☐ Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.

Is this statement much closer or slightly closer to your opinion?
8 ☐ Much 9 ☐ Slightly

f. (321)
1 ☐ When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.
2 ☐ It is not always wise to plan too far ahead, because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.

Is this statement much closer or slightly closer to your opinion?
8 ☐ Much 9 ☐ Slightly

g. (322)
1 ☐ In my case, getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.
2 ☐ Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.

Is this statement much closer or slightly closer to your opinion?
8 ☐ Much 9 ☐ Slightly

II. WORK EXPERIENCE AND ATTITUDES – Continued

43h. (323) 1 ☐ Who gets to be boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.

2 ☐ Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability; luck has little or nothing to do with it.

Is this statement much closer or slightly closer to your opinion?

8 ☐ Much 9 ☐ Slightly

i. (324) 1 ☐ Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.

2 ☐ There is really no such thing as "luck."

Is this statement much closer or slightly closer to your opinion?

8 ☐ Much 9 ☐ Slightly

j. (325) 1 ☐ In the long run, the bad things that happen to us are balanced by the good ones.

2 ☐ Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three.

Is this statement much closer or slightly closer to your opinion?

8 ☐ Much 9 ☐ Slightly

k. (326) 1 ☐ Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.

2 ☐ It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.

Is this statement much closer or slightly closer to your opinion?

8 ☐ Much 9 ☐ Slightly

Notes

III. HEALTH

44a. Do you have any health problem or condition that limits in any way the amount or kind of work you can do?	44a.	(327) 1 ☐ Yes – SKIP to Check Item Q 2 ☐ No – ASK b
b. Do you have any health problem or condition that limits in any way the amount or kind of housework you can do?	b.	(328) 1 ☐ Yes – SKIP to Check Item Q 2 ☐ No – ASK c
c. Do you have any health problems that in any way limit your other activities?	c.	(329) 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No
CHECK ITEM Q		☐ Respondent is currently in Labor Force Group A or B – ASK 45a ☐ Respondent is currently in Labor Force Group C – SKIP to 45e
45a. If, by some chance, you (and your husband) were to get enough money to live comfortably without working, do you think you would work anyway?	45a.	(330) 1 ☐ Yes – ASK b 2 ☐ No – SKIP to c 3 ☐ Undecided – SKIP to d
b. Why do you think you would work?	b.	(331) ☐ ____________________ SKIP to e
c. Why do you feel that you would not work?	c.	(332) ☐ ____________________ SKIP to e
d. On what would it depend?	d.	(333) ☐ ____________________
e. What would you say is the most important thing about any job – good wages or liking the kind of work you are doing?	e.	(334) 1 ☐ Good wages 2 ☐ Liking the work

Notes

IV. CHILD CARE

CHECK ITEM R

☐ Labor Force Group A or B with at least one child under 18 – *ASK 46a*
☐ Labor Force Group C with at least one child under 18 – *SKIP to 47a*
☐ All others – *SKIP to Check Item T*

46a. Who usually takes (will take) care of your child(ren) while you are working?

46a.	Youngest child in each column 0–2 years old	 3–5 years old	 6+ years old
1. In own home by relative			
a. Father	(335) 1 ☐	(337) 1 ☐	(339) 1 ☐
b. Older brother or sister of child(ren)	2 ☐	2 ☐	2 ☐
c. Other relative	3 ☐	3 ☐	3 ☐
2. In own home by nonrelative	4 ☐	4 ☐	4 ☐
3. In relative's home	5 ☐	5 ☐	5 ☐
4. In nonrelative's home	6 ☐	6 ☐	6 ☐
5. Child care center (such as nursery school or settlement house) other than regular school or formal kindergarten			
a. Public (i.e., Government sponsored)	(336) 7 ☐	(338) 7 ☐	(340) 7 ☐
b. Private	8 ☐	8 ☐	8 ☐
6. Child cares for self (without supervision)	9 ☐	9 ☐	9 ☐
7. Mother cares for child at work	10 ☐	10 ☐	10 ☐
8. In "regular" school or kindergarten while mother is working		11 ☐	11 ☐
9. Other	12 ☐	12 ☐	12 ☐
Specify →			

b(1). What is the total cost of having (all of) your child(ren) cared for while you are working?

b(1).
(341) $ ________ per
(342) ☐ ________ *If hours – ASK 46b(2)*
All others, SKIP to Check Item S
0 ☐ No cost – *SKIP to Check Item T*

b(2). How many hours per week are these services required?

b(2).
(343) ________ Hours

CHECK ITEM S

☐ Response to item 46b(1) in dollars per day – *ASK 46c*
☐ All others – *SKIP to Check Item T*

46c. How many days per week do you work?

46c.
(344) ________ Days per week – *SKIP to Check Item T*

47a. In the past 12 months, have you been unable to look for work or take a job due to a lack of child care arrangements?

47a.
(345) 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b*
2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 48*

b. What kind of child care arrangements did you want so that you could work?

b.
(346) ☐
____

48. If a child care center or day care home were available for your child(ren) at no cost to you, do you think you might look for a job right now?

48.
(347) 1 ☐ Yes
2 ☐ No
☐ Depends – *Specify*
____

Notes

(348)
(349)
(350)

V. RETROSPECTIVE WORK HISTORY

This is the fourth time over the past five years that we have talked to you about portions of your work experience. Now we'd like you to look back over the whole period and give some of your reactions to it.

CHECK ITEM T

☐ Respondents with same employer (or self-employed status) as in 1967 (Item 110R is same as 6a(1–4) or 6d) – *ASK 49a*

☐ All others – *SKIP to 52 on page 20*

49a. Since we first talked with you in June of 1967, have you ever looked for another job except during periods of layoff?	49a. (351)	1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 50a*
b. Would you say that you have looked for another job frequently, occasionally or just once?	b. (352)	1 ☐ Frequently 2 ☐ Occasionally 3 ☐ Just once
c. In what year was that *(most recent if more than one)*?	c. (353)	19____
d. Why did you decide to look for another job at that (this) time?	d. (354) (355)	☐☐ ☐☐ ____________
e. How did you go about looking? *(Mark all methods used; do not read list)*	e. (356)	Check with { 1 ☐ State employment agency (or counselor) 2 ☐ Private employment agency 3 ☐ Employer directly 4 ☐ Friends or relatives } 5 ☐ Placed or answered ads 6 ☐ Other – Specify ____________
f. What kind of work were you looking for?	f. (357)	☐☐☐
g. Were you looking for work in the same local area as you were living at that time?	g. (358)	1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No
h. Did you find a job that you could have had?	h. (359)	1 ☐ Yes – *ASK i* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to p*
i. What kind of work was it?	i. (360)	☐☐☐
j. What kind of business or industry was it?	j. (361)	☐☐☐
k. Where was the job located?	k. (362)	☐ ____________County____________State
l. What would the job have paid?	l. (363) (364) (365) (366)	$________ . ______ per: *(Dollars)* *(Cents)* 1 ☐ Hour OR $________ . 00 per: *(Dollars only)* 2 ☐ Day 3 ☐ Week 4 ☐ Biweekly 5 ☐ Month 6 ☐ Year 7 ☐ Other – Specify ____________
m. How many hours per week would the job have involved?	m. (367)	______ Hours per week
n. Did you accept this job?	n. (368)	1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to 52 on page 20* 2 ☐ No – *ASK o*
o. Why did you decide not to take it?	o. (369) (370)	☐☐ ☐☐ ____________ } *SKIP to 52 on page 20*
p. Why do you think you were unable to find anything?	p. (371) (372)	☐☐ ☐☐ ____________

V. RETROSPECTIVE WORK HISTORY – Continued

50a. Since we first talked with you in June of 1967, has any other employer made you a definite offer of a full-time job that you did not accept?	50a. ☐ Yes – **How many times?** (373) ________ – ASK b 0 ☐ No – SKIP to 51a
b. In what year was that *(most recent if more than one)*?	b. (374) 19____
c. How did you happen to get the offer?	c. (375) 1 ☐ Job offered by a friend, relative 2 ☐ Job offered by a business acquaintance 3 ☐ Job offered by a former employer 4 ☐ Other – Specify ____________
d. What kind of work was it?	d. (376) ☐☐☐
e. What kind of business or industry was it?	e. (377) ☐☐☐
f. Was this job located in the same local area as you were living at that time?	f. (378) 1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No
g. What would the job have paid?	g. (379) $________ . ______ per: *(Dollars)* *(Cents)* (380) 1 ☐ Hour OR (381) $________ . 00 per: *(Dollars only)* (382) 2 ☐ Day 3 ☐ Week 4 ☐ Biweekly 5 ☐ Month 6 ☐ Year 7 ☐ Other – Specify ____________
h. How many hours per week would this job have involved?	h. (383) ______ Hours per week
i. Why did you decide not to take it?	i. (384) ☐☐ (385) ☐☐ ____________ } SKIP to 52
51a. During this period have you ever seriously thought of looking for another job?	51a. (386) 1 ☐ Yes – ASK b 2 ☐ No – ASK d
b. Why would you say you've thought of looking?	b. (387) ☐☐ (388) ☐☐ ____________
c. Why didn't you actually look for a job?	c. (389) ☐☐ (390) ☐☐ ____________ } SKIP to 52
d. Why not?	d. (391) ☐☐ (392) ☐☐ ____________

V. RETROSPECTIVE WORK HISTORY – Continued

52. In the past five years, since June 1967, for how many different employers have you worked?	52.	(393) ____________ Employers – ASK 53a x ☐ Not worked since June 1967 – SKIP to 61
53a. All in all, so far as your work is concerned, would you say that you've progressed during the past five years, moved backward, or just about held your own?	53a.	(394) 1 ☐ Progressed – ASK b 2 ☐ Moved backward – SKIP to c 3 ☐ Held own 4 ☐ Retired SKIP to 54a
b. In what way(s) would you say you have progressed?	b.	(395) ☐☐ (396) ☐☐ (397) ☐☐ SKIP to 54a
c. In what way(s) would you say you have moved backward?	c.	(398) ☐☐ (399) ☐☐ (400) ☐☐
54a. During the past five years, do you feel that so far as work is concerned, you have been in any way discriminated against because of your sex?	54a.	(401) 1 ☐ Yes – ASK b and c 2 ☐ No – SKIP to 55a
b. In what way(s)?	b.	(402) ☐☐ (403) ☐☐
c. Was this by an employer for whom you worked or an employer for whom you did not work?	c.	(404) 1 ☐ Employer for whom respondent worked 2 ☐ Employer for whom respondent did not work 3 ☐ Both 4 ☐ Other
55a. During the past five years, do you feel that so far as work is concerned, you have been in any way discriminated against because of your age?	55a.	(405) 1 ☐ Yes – ASK b and c 2 ☐ No – SKIP to 56a
b. In what way(s)?	b.	(406) ☐☐ (407) ☐☐ (408) ☐☐
c. Was this by an employer for whom you worked or an employer for whom you did not work?	c.	(409) 1 ☐ Employer for whom respondent worked 2 ☐ Employer for whom respondent did not work 3 ☐ Both 4 ☐ Other

V. RETROSPECTIVE WORK HISTORY – Continued

56a. During that period, do you feel that so far as work is concerned, you have been in any way discriminated against because of race, religion, nationality, or for any other reason? 56a.	(410) 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b, c, and d* 2 ☐ No { *If Negro, SKIP to 57a* / *All others, SKIP to 58*
b. For what reason(s)? *(Mark as many as apply)* b.	(411) 1 ☐ Race 2 ☐ Religion 3 ☐ Nationality 4 ☐ Other – *Specify* ________
c. In what ways have you been discriminated against? c.	(412) ☐☐ ________ (413) ☐☐ ________ (414) ☐☐ ________
d. Was this by an employer for whom you worked or an employer for whom you did not work? d.	(415) 1 ☐ Employer for whom respondent worked 2 ☐ Employer for whom respondent did not work 3 ☐ Both 4 ☐ Other } *If Negro, ASK 57a. All others, SKIP to 58*
57a. So far as you know, are there (other) employers in this area who discriminate against Negroes, such as by refusing to hire or promote them? 57a.	(416) 1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b* 2 ☐ No 3 ☐ Don't know } *SKIP to 58*
b. Would you say most employers, many employers, some employers, or few employers in this area discriminate against Negroes? b.	(417) 1 ☐ Most employers 2 ☐ Many employers 3 ☐ Some employers 4 ☐ Few employers
58. Excluding paid vacations and paid sick leave, since June 1967 – in about how many different weeks were you NOT working? 58.	(418) ________ **Weeks** – *ASK 59* 0 ☐ None – *SKIP to Check Item U*
59. How many of these *(entry in 58)* **weeks were you looking for work or on layoff from a job?** 59.	(419) ________ **Weeks** 0 ☐ None
60. That means there were about *(entry in 58 less entry in 59)* **weeks since June 1967 that you were not working, or looking for work. Is that correct?** 60.	(420) ________ **Weeks** ☐ Yes – *GO to Check Item U* ☐ No – *Determine whether 58 or 59 is incorrect and make necessary correction.*
CHECK ITEM U	☐ In Labor Force Group A ("WK" or "J" in 1 or "Yes" in 2a or 3a) – *ASK 61* ☐ All others – *SKIP to 62*
61. As you look back over the past five years, would you say that – **a. The pressures you feel in your job have increased, decreased, or remained about the same?** 61. a.	(421) 1 ☐ Increased 2 ☐ Decreased 3 ☐ **Remained about the same**
b. There has been any change in your ability to keep up with the pace of your job? b.	(422) 1 ☐ Yes – *Mark 2 or 3* 2 ☐ **Is it easier?** 3 ☐ **Is it harder?** 4 ☐ **No**
c. The amount of fatigue you feel at the end of a work day has increased, decreased, or remained about the same? c.	(423) 1 ☐ **Increased** 2 ☐ **Decreased** 3 ☐ **Remained about the same**
Notes	(424) (425)

VI. EDUCATION AND TRAINING

62a. Since we last interviewed you have you taken any training courses or educational programs of any kind, either on the job or elsewhere?	62a.	(426)	1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b–i* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 63a*
b. What kind of training or educational program did you take? *(Specify below, then mark one box)* ____________________ ____________________	b.	(427)	1 ☐ Professional, technical 2 ☐ Managerical 3 ☐ Clerical 4 ☐ Skilled manual 5 ☐ Semi-skilled manual 6 ☐ Service 7 ☐ General courses (English, math, art) 8 ☐ Other
c. Where did you take this training or course? *(Specify below, then mark one box)* ____________________ ____________________	c.	(428)	1 ☐ University or college 2 ☐ Business college, technical institute 3 ☐ Company training school 4 ☐ Correspondence course 5 ☐ Adult education or night school 6 ☐ Other
d. How long did you attend this course or program?	d.	(429)	______ Weeks
e. How many hours per week did you spend on this program?	e.	(430)	1 ☐ 1– 4 2 ☐ 5– 9 3 ☐ 10–14 4 ☐ 15–19 5 ☐ 20 or more
f. Did you complete this program?	f.	(431)	1 ☐ Yes – *SKIP to h* 2 ☐ No, dropped out – *ASK g* 3 ☐ No, still enrolled – *SKIP to h*
g. Why didn't you complete this program?	g.	(432)	1 ☐ Found a job 2 ☐ Too much time involved 3 ☐ Lost interest 4 ☐ Too difficult 5 ☐ Marriage 6 ☐ Pregnancy 7 ☐ No one to care for children 8 ☐ Other family reason 9 ☐ Other – *Specify* __________
h. Why did you decide to take this program?	h.	(433)	1 ☐ To obtain work 2 ☐ To improve current job situation 3 ☐ To get a better job 4 ☐ Had extra time 5 ☐ Bored staying home 6 ☐ Education, interest, general knowledge 7 ☐ Other – *Specify* __________
☐ Respondent not currently employed – *SKIP to 63a* **i. Do you use this training on your present job?**	i.	(434)	1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No
63a. Did you receive a diploma, degree or a new certificate required for practicing any profession or trade such as teacher, practical nurse or beautician in the past year?	63a.	(435)	1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b and c* 2 ☐ No – *SKIP to 64a*
b. What type of diploma, degree, or certificate is this?	b.	(436)	☐ ____________________
c. Is this certificate currently valid?	c.	(437)	1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No
Notes		(438) (439)	

VI. EDUCATION AND TRAINING – Continued

64a. Do you expect to receive any additional training in the future?	64a.	(640) 1 ☐ Yes – ASK b–d 2 ☐ No – SKIP to e
b. What kind of training do you expect to receive?	b.	(641) 1 ☐ Professional, technical 2 ☐ Managerial, supervisory 3 ☐ Clerical 4 ☐ Skilled manual 5 ☐ Other
c. Where do you expect to receive this training?	c.	(642) 1 ☐ Business college, technical institute (private) 2 ☐ Company training program 3 ☐ Correspondence course 4 ☐ Public vocational school 5 ☐ Community or junior college 6 ☐ Other
d. When do you expect to start this training?	d.	(643) ____________ Month ________ Year } SKIP to 65 X ☐ Don't know } SKIP to 65
e. Why do you think you will not receive additional training?	e.	(644) 1 ☐ Not interested in training 2 ☐ Family responsibilities 3 ☐ Training not available 4 ☐ Too expensive 5 ☐ Can't take time off from work 6 ☐ Don't know 7 ☐ Other – Specify ____________________
65. How did you do in English courses in high school? Would you say that you did very well, above average, average, below average, or poorly?	65.	(645) 1 ☐ Very well 2 ☐ Above average 3 ☐ Average 4 ☐ Below average 5 ☐ Poorly 6 ☐ Did not attend high school

Notes

VII. ASSETS AND INCOME

66a. Is this house (apartment) owned or being bought by you (or your husband)?	66a.	(446)	1 ☐ Yes – ASK b and c 2 ☐ No – SKIP to 67a
b. About how much do you think this property would sell for on today's market?	b.	(447)	$ ______ . 00
c. About how much do you (or your husband) owe on this property for mortgages, back taxes, home improvement loans, etc.?	c.	(448)	$ ______ . 00 0 ☐ None
67a. Do you (or your husband) have any money in savings or checking accounts, savings and loan companies, or credit unions?	67a.	(449)	☐ Yes – How much altogether? $ ______ . 00 ☐ No
b. Do you (or your husband) have any – (1) U.S. Savings Bonds?	b. (1)	(450)	☐ Yes – What is their face value? $ ______ . 00 ☐ No
(2) Stocks, bonds, or mutual funds?	(2)	(451)	☐ Yes – About how much is their market value? $ ______ . 00 ☐ No
68a. Do you (or your husband) rent, own, or have an investment in a farm, business, or any other real estate?	68a.	(452)	1 ☐ Yes – ASK b–d 2 ☐ No – SKIP to 69a
b. Which one(s)?	b.	(453)	1 ☐ Farm 2 ☐ Business 3 ☐ Real estate
c. About how much do you think this (business, farm, or other real estate) would sell for on today's market?	c.	(454)	$ ______ . 00 Farm
		(455)	$ ______ . 00 Business
		(456)	$ ______ . 00 Real Estate
d. What is the total amount of debt and other liabilities on this (business, farm, or other real estate)?	d.	(457)	$ ______ . 00 Farm ☐ None
		(458)	$ ______ . 00 Business ☐ None
		(459)	$ ______ . 00 Real Estate ☐ None
69a. Do you (or your husband) own an automobile(s)?	69a.	(460)	☐ Yes – How many? ______ – ASK b and c ☐ No – SKIP to 70
b. Do you owe any money on this (these) automobile(s)?	b.	(461)	☐ Yes – How much altogether? $ ______ . 00 ☐ No
c. How much would this (these) car(s) sell for on today's market?	c.	(462)	$ ______ . 00
70. Do you (or your husband) owe any (other) money to stores, banks, doctors, or anyone else, excluding 30-day charge accounts?	70.	(463)	☐ Yes – How much? $ ______ . 00 ☐ No
71a. So far as your overall financial position is concerned, would you say you (and your husband) are better off, about the same or worse off now than you were when we last interviewed you?	71a.	(464)	1 ☐ About the same – SKIP to 72 2 ☐ Better off } ASK b 3 ☐ Worse off } ASK b
b. In what ways are you (better, worse) off?	b.	(465)	☐ ______

VII. ASSETS AND INCOME – Continued

72. Now I'd like to ask a few questions about your income in 1971– **a. In 1971, how much did you receive from wages, salary, commissions, or tips from all jobs, before deductions for taxes or anything else?**	72a.	(466) $ ______ . 00 ☐ None
☐ Respondent not married – SKIP to c **b. In 1971, how much did your husband receive from wages, salary, commissions, or tips from all jobs, before deductions for taxes or anything else?**	b.	(467) $ ______ . 00 ☐ None
☐ No other family members 14 years or older – SKIP to 73a **c. In 1971, how much did all other family members living here receive from wages, salary, commissions, or tips from all jobs, before deductions for taxes or anything else?**	c.	(468) $ ______ . 00 ☐ None
73a. In 1971, did you receive any income from working on your own or in your own business, professional practice, or partnership? $ ______ less $ ______ = $ ______ (Gross income) (Expenses) (Net income)	73a.	☐ Yes – **How much?** (469) $ ______ . 00 ☐ No
☐ No other family members 14 years or older – SKIP to 74 **b. In 1971, did any other family members living here receive any income from working on their own or in their own business, professional practice, or partnership?** $ ______ less $ ______ = $ ______ (Gross income) (Expenses) (Net income)	b.	☐ Yes – **How much?** (470) $ ______ . 00 ☐ No
74. In 1971, did your family receive any income from operating a farm? $ ______ less $ ______ = $ ______ (Gross income) (Expenses) (Net income)	74.	☐ Yes – **How much?** (471) $ ______ . 00 ☐ No
75. In addition, during 1971, did anyone in this family living here receive any rental income from roomers and boarders, an apartment in this house or another building, or other real estate? $ ______ less $ ______ = $ ______ (Gross income) (Expenses) (Net income)	75.	☐ Yes – **How much?** (472) $ ______ . 00 ☐ No
76. In 1971, did anyone in this family living here receive interest or dividends on savings, stocks, bonds, or income from estates or trusts?	76.	☐ Yes – **How much?** (473) $ ______ . 00 ☐ No
77a. In 1971, did you receive any unemployment compensation?	77a.	☐ Yes (474) ______ **How many weeks?** **How much did you receive altogether?** (475) $ ______ . 00 ☐ No
☐ Respondent not married – SKIP to c **b. In 1971, did your husband receive any unemployment compensation?**	b.	☐ Yes (476) ______ **How many weeks?** **How much did he receive altogether?** (477) $ ______ . 00 ☐ No
☐ No other family members 14 years or older – SKIP to 78 **c. In 1971, did any other family members living here receive any unemployment compensation?**	c.	☐ Yes – **How much?** (478) $ ______ . 00 ☐ No

78. In 1971, did anyone in this family living here receive income as a result of disability or illness such as *(Read list):* 78.
If "Yes" to any items in list, enter amount, indicating whether received by respondent or other family member.

	Yes	No	Respondent	Other family member
(1) Veteran's compensation or pension?	☐	☐	(479) . 00	(484) . 00
(2) Workmen's compensation?	☐	☐	(480) . 00	(485) . 00
(3) Aid to the permanently and totally disabled or aid to the blind? . .	☐	☐	(481) . 00	(486) . 00
(4) Social Security disability payments?	☐	☐	(482) . 00	(487) . 00
(5) Any other disability payment? – *Specify type* ______	☐	☐	(483) . 00	(488) . 00

VII. ASSETS AND INCOME – Continued

79. In 1971, did anyone in this family living here receive any other Social Security payments, such as old age or survivor's insurance?	79.		☐ Yes – **Who?** ☐ Respondent – **How much?**
		(489)	$__________. 00
			☐ Husband – **How much?**
		(490)	$__________. 00
			☐ Other – **How much?**
		(491)	$__________. 00 ☐ No
80. In 1971, did anyone in this family living here receive any Aid to Families with Dependent Children payments, or other public assistance or welfare payments?	80.		☐ Yes ☐ AFDC – **How much?**
		(492)	$__________. 00
			☐ Other – **How much?**
		(493)	$__________. 00 ☐ No
81a. In 1971, did anyone in this family living here buy any food stamps under the Government's Food Stamp Plan?	81a.		☐ Yes – *ASK b and c* ☐ No – *SKIP to 82a*
b. In how many months during 1971 did you buy stamps?	b.	(494)	________ Months
c. How much was your monthly bonus?	c.	(495)	$__________. 00
82a. In 1971, did anyone in this family living here receive any pensions from local, State, or Federal Government?	82a.	(496)	☐ Yes – **How much?** $__________. 00 ☐ No
b. In 1971, did anyone in this family living here receive any other retirement pensions, such as private employee or personal retirement benefits?	b.	(497)	☐ Yes – **How much?** $__________. 00 ☐ No
83. In 1971, did anyone in this family living here receive any other type of income, such as alimony, child support, contributions from family members living elsewhere, annuities, or anything else?	83.	(498)	☐ Yes – **How much?** $__________. 00 ☐ No

84. In 1971, did you (or your husband) purchase any of the following items?

	Yes	No		Was it – NEW	Was it – USED
(1) Washing machine	☐	☐	(499)	1 ☐	2 ☐
(2) Clothes dryer	☐	☐	(500)	1 ☐	2 ☐
(3) Electric or gas stove	☐	☐	(501)	1 ☐	2 ☐
(4) Refrigerator	☐	☐	(502)	1 ☐	2 ☐
(5) Freezer	☐	☐	(503)	1 ☐	2 ☐
(6) Room air-conditioner	☐	☐	(504)	1 ☐	2 ☐
(7) Television	☐	☐	(505)	1 ☐	2 ☐
(8) Garbage disposal	☐	☐	(506)	1 ☐	2 ☐
(9) Hi-fi or stereo	☐	☐	(507)	1 ☐	2 ☐
(10) Dishwasher	☐	☐	(508)	1 ☐	2 ☐

85. In 1971, did you have any major expenditures on housing such as remodeling or redecorating, plumbing, electrical work, roofing, painting, or heating which amounted to more than $200?	85.	(509)	1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No
86. Aside from anything else you have mentioned, did you (or other members of your family) have any other major expenses in 1971 such as medical, dental, accident, travel, or education which amounted to more than $200?	86.	(510)	1 ☐ Yes 2 ☐ No

VIII. FAMILY BACKGROUND

CHECK ITEM V	*Refer to item 104R on Information Sheet.* ☐ Respondent't parents are dead – *SKIP to Check Item W* ☐ All other – *ASK 87a*

87a. Now I have some questions on your family background. Are your mother and father living?	87a.	(511)	1 ☐ BOTH parents alive 2 ☐ MOTHER alive, father dead 3 ☐ FATHER alive, mother dead 4 ☐ NEITHER parent alive

CHECK ITEM W	*Refer to item 105R on Information Sheet and item 13, cover page.* ☐ Respondent not married } *SKIP to 88a* ☐ Respondent't husband's parents are dead } *SKIP to 88a* ☐ All other – *ASK 87b*

VIII. FAMILY BACKGROUND – Continued

87b. Are your husband's mother and father living?

87b. (512)
1 ☐ BOTH parents alive
2 ☐ MOTHER alive, father dead
3 ☐ FATHER alive, mother dead
4 ☐ NEITHER parents alive

88a. How many persons, not counting yourself, (and your husband) are dependent upon you (and your husband) for at least one-half of their support?

88a. (513)
_______ Number – ASK b
0 ☐ None – *SKIP to 89a*

b. Do any of these dependents live somewhere else other than here at home with you?

b.
☐ Yes – **How many?**
(514) _______________ – *ASK c*
0 ☐ No – *SKIP to 89a*

c. What is their relationship to you?

c. (515) ☐

89a. Would you say that during the past year there has been any change in your feeling about having a job outside the home for pay?

89a. (516)
1 ☐ Yes – *ASK b and c*
2 ☐ No } *SKIP to Check Item X*
3 ☐ Don't know } *SKIP to Check Item X*

b. In what way has your feeling changed?

b. (517) ☐
____

c. Why would you say your thinking has changed?

c. (518) ☐
____

CHECK ITEM X

Refer to item 106R on Information Sheet and item 13, cover page.
☐ Marital status has changed since last interview – *ASK 90*
☐ Marital status has not changed since last interview – *SKIP to Check Item Y*

90 When were you – { Married? Divorced? Widowed? Separated?

90. (519) _______________ Month _______ Year

CHECK ITEM Y

Determine whether or not respondent lives in the same area (SMSA or county) as when last interviewed.

(520)
1 ☐ Respondent lives in same area (SMSA or county) as when last interviewed – *SKIP to 91f*
2 ☐ Respondent lives in different area (SMSA or county) than when last interviewed – *ASK 91a*

91a. When we last interviewed you, you were living in a different area. How many miles from here is that?

91a. (521) _______ Miles

b. How did you happen to move here?

b. (522) ☐

c. Did you have a job lined up here at the time you moved?

c. (523)
1 ☐ Yes, different from job held at time of move } SKIP to e
2 ☐ Yes, same as job held at time of move } SKIP to e
3 ☐ Yes, transferred job in same company } SKIP to e
4 ☐ No – *ASK d*

d. How many weeks did you look before you found work?

d. (524)
_______ Total weeks
0 ☐ Did not look for work – *SKIP to e*
99 ☐ Still haven't found work

(1) How many weeks did you look before you moved?

(1) (525) _______ Weeks before

(2) How many weeks did you look after you moved?

(2) (526) _______ Weeks after

e. Since we last interviewed you, have you lived in any area other than the present one or the one in which you lived when we interviewed you last?

e.
☐ Yes – **How many?** } *SKIP to Check Item Z*
(527) _______________
0 ☐ No } *SKIP to Check Item Z*

f. Have you lived in any area other than the present one since we last interviewed you?

f.
☐ Yes – **How many?**
(528) _______________
0 ☐ No

CHECK ITEM Z

Refer to item 112R.
☐ A Social Security number is entered in item 112R – *SKIP to 92*
☐ No Social Security number is entered in item 112R – *ASK 91g*

91g. What is your Social Security number?

91g. (529) ☐☐☐☐☐☐☐
(530) ☐☐☐☐

Notes

(531)
(532)
(533)

Now I have a few questions about the education and work experience of the other family members living here.

				Persons 6–24 years old				Persons 14 years old and over		
									If person worked at all in 1971	
Line number	Name List below all persons living here who are related to respondent. *Enter the line number from the Household Record Card in column 92.*	Relationship to respondent *Example: husband, son, daughter-in-law, brother, etc.*	Age As of April 1, 1972	Is . . . attending or enrolled in school? *Mark one* 1 ☐ = YES 2 ☐ = NO	*(If "Yes" –* What grade (year)? *If "No" –* What is the highest grade (year) . . . ever attended?	Did . . . finish this grade (year)? *Mark one* 1 ☐ = YES 2 ☐ = NO	How much school do you think . . . is going to get?	In 1971, how many weeks did . . . work either full- or part-time (not counting work around the house)?	In the weeks that . . . worked, how many hours did . . . usually work per week?	What kind of work was . . . doing in 1971? *If more than one, record the longest.*
92.	93a.	93b.	94.	95.	96.	97.	98.	99.	100a.	100b.
		(534) Respondent								
		(535)		(536) 1 ☐ 2 ☐		1 ☐ 2 ☐		(537)		(538)
		(539)		(540) 1 ☐ 2 ☐		1 ☐ 2 ☐		(541)		(542)
		(543)		(544) 1 ☐ 2 ☐		1 ☐ 2 ☐		(545)		(546)
		(547)		(548) 1 ☐ 2 ☐		1 ☐ 2 ☐		(549)		(550)
		(551)		(552) 1 ☐ 2 ☐		1 ☐ 2 ☐		(553)		(554)
		(555)		(556) 1 ☐ 2 ☐		1 ☐ 2 ☐		(557)		(558)
		(559)		(560) 1 ☐ 2 ☐		1 ☐ 2 ☐		(561)		(562)
		(563)		(564) 1 ☐ 2 ☐		1 ☐ 2 ☐		(565)		(566)
		(567)		(568) 1 ☐ 2 ☐		1 ☐ 2 ☐		(569)		(570)
		(571)		(572) 1 ☐ 2 ☐		1 ☐ 2 ☐		(573)		(574)
		(575)		(576) 1 ☐ 2 ☐		1 ☐ 2 ☐		(577)		(578)
		(579)		(580) 1 ☐ 2 ☐		1 ☐ 2 ☐		(581)		(582)
		(583)		(584) 1 ☐ 2 ☐		1 ☐ 2 ☐		(585)		(586)
		(587)		(588) 1 ☐ 2 ☐		1 ☐ 2 ☐		(589)		(590)
		(591)		(592) 1 ☐ 2 ☐		1 ☐ 2 ☐		(593)		(594)
		(595)		(596) 1 ☐ 2 ☐		1 ☐ 2 ☐		(597)		(598)
		(599)		(600) 1 ☐ 2 ☐		1 ☐ 2 ☐		(601)		(602)
		(603)		(604) 1 ☐ 2 ☐		1 ☐ 2 ☐		(605)		(606)
		(607)		(608) 1 ☐ 2 ☐		1 ☐ 2 ☐		(609)		(610)
		(611)		(612) 1 ☐ 2 ☐		1 ☐ 2 ☐		(613)		(614)
		(615)		(616) 1 ☐ 2 ☐		1 ☐ 2 ☐		(617)		(618)
		(619)		(620) 1 ☐ 2 ☐		1 ☐ 2 ☐		(621)		(622)
		(623)		(624) 1 ☐ 2 ☐		1 ☐ 2 ☐		(625)		(626)

100C. **When we last interviewed you, you mentioned** *(read names from item 107R on Information Sheet)* **as persons who will always know where you can be reached even if you moved away. Is this still true?**
(If so, verify the addresses and telephone numbers and mark box 1 or 2 below. If not, mark box 2 and enter information about other persons who will know the respondent's whereabouts.)

1 ☐ All names, addresses and phone numbers are verified as being the same as those entered in item 107R – END INTERVIEW

2 ☐ All others, enter the names, etc. of two persons who will know the respondent's whereabouts.

	Name	Relationship to respondent	Address	Telephone number
(1)				
(2)				

NONINTERVIEWS IN 1971

Ask the following questions of all respondents who were noninterviews in 1971. Transcribe the answers to the appropriate item on the Information Sheet, then proceed with the regular interview.

A. What were you doing at this time in 1971 – working, keeping house, or something else?

1 ☐ Working
2 ☐ With a job, not at work
} ASK B

3 ☐ Looking for work
4 ☐ Keeping house
5 ☐ Unable to work
6 ☐ Other – Specify
} END of questions

____

____

Transcribe entries as follows:

1. If box 1 or 2 is checked, mark "Labor Force Group A" in 102R.
2. If box 3 is checked, mark "Labor Force Group B" in 102R.
3. If box 4 or 6 is checked, mark "Labor Force Group C" in 102R.
4. If box 5 is checked, mark "Unable to work" in 102R.

B. For whom did you work?

____

____

Transfer name of employer to 103R(1)

C. What kind of work were you doing?

____

____

Transfer kind of work to 103R(2)

WHEN THE TRANSCRIPTION HAS BEEN COMPLETED, BEGIN THE REGULAR INTERVIEW WITH ITEM 1.

OFFICE USE ONLY

108R. (1) Name of employer in 1969

____

____

☐ Not employed in 1969

109R. ☐ Noninterview in 1968

(1) Name of employer in 1968

____

____

☐ Not employed in 1968

110R. (1) Name of employer in 1967

____

____

☐ Not employed in 1967

111R. Residence in 1967

City ______________________________

State ______________________________

112R. Social Security Number

(529) ☐☐☐☐☐☐☐

(530) ☐☐☐☐

IX. INFORMATION SHEET
DATA FROM LAST INTERVIEW

101R. Date of last interview

(627)

Month	Day	Year

102R. Labor Force Group in 1971

(628) 1 ☐ A

3 ☐ B

5 ☐ C

6 ☐ Unable to work

103R. (1) Name of employer in 1971

____

____

(2) Kind of work done in 1971

____

☐ Not employed in 1971

104R. Status of respondent's parents in 1971

(629) 1 ☐ Both parents of respondent are dead

2 ☐ All other

105R. Status of husband's parents in 1971

(630) 1 ☐ Respondent not married

2 ☐ Both parents of the respondent's husband are dead

3 ☐ All other

106R. Marital status at last interview

(631) 1 ☐ Married

2 ☐ Separated

3 ☐ Widowed

4 ☐ Divorced

5 ☐ Never married

107R. Names and addresses of persons who will always know where respondent can be reached:

1. __________________________________

____

____

____

2. __________________________________

____

____

____

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NOTE: All entries refer to women respondents 35-49 years of age in 1972 unless otherwise noted. T refers to a table or chart; n refers to footnote.

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